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Formation of the discourse competence of future specialists of English

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

**“THE QUALIFICATION PAPER
IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE”**

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INTRODUCTION

The president of the republic of Uzbekistan Islam Abduganievich Karimov speaking about the future of Uzbekistan underlines that “Harmonious generation is the future guarantee of prosperity”.

It is our task, to prepare and teach professionally competent and energetic personnel, real patriots to see them in the world depository of science and culture. In this plan the notional program about training personnel was worked out on the formation of new generation of specialist. “With the high common and professionally culture, creative and social activity, with the ability to orientate in the social and political life independently, capable to raise and solve the problems to the perspective”.¹

The present Qualification Project Paper deals with the study the role of integrated approach to improve the students’ discourse competence of the future specialists of English from which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical language use.

The topicality of the Qualification Project Paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the features and the peculiarities of the discourse competence of the future specialists of English and the approaches of the lesson designing for language teachers.

The aim of this Qualification Project Paper is to define the principles of improving the students’ discourse competence of the future specialists of English.

The novelty of the work is that the thorough analysis the problems of improving the students’ discourse competence of the future specialists of English as a tool of designing the lesson course for language teachers which have not been researched deeply yet; moreover studying the role of communication workshops

¹Каримов И. “Юксак билимли ва интеллектуал ривожланган авлодни тарбиялаш мамлакатни барқарор тараққий эттириш вва модернизация қилишининг энг муҳим шарти” мавзuidaги халқаро конференциянинг очилиш маросимидаги нутқи\\ Тошкент оқшоми, 2012 йил 20 февраль

for language teachers in Present day English. We have analyzed the main approaches of improving the students' discourse competence of the future specialists of English for language teachers for the first time.

The tasks of the research are the following according to the general aim:

1. to define the principles of language teaching;
2. to define the concept of communicative competence;
2. to identify the approaches and types of discourse competence in linguistics;
3. to analyze the role of improving the students' discourse competence in Present Day English.
4. to show some approaches and techniques of improving students' discourse competence;

The theoretical importance of the research is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive analysis of improving students' discourse competence of the future specialists of English through the lesson course, which form a big layer of the language teaching.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given research can be used in theoretical courses of teaching foreign language and improving the intercultural competence within the language.

The structure of the work - the given Qualification Project Paper consists of introduction, two chapters and a conclusion, which are followed by the lists of literature used on the course of the research. At the end of the work, we have given some sample lesson plans for integrated skills improving the students' communicative competence.

CHAPTER I. GENERAL LITERARY REVIEW ON THE PROBLEMS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1. General remarks on teaching foreign languages

At regular intervals, new remote dialect showing techniques touch base on the scene. New reading material show up significantly all the more every now and again. They are normally broadcasted to be more powerful than those that have gone some time recently, and, much of the time, these techniques or course readings are advanced or even recommended for prompt use. New strategies and course books may reflect current advancements in etymological/connected phonetic hypothesis or late pedagogical patterns. Now and then they are said to be founded on late improvements in dialect securing hypothesis and exploration. For instance, one way to deal with instructing may underline the estimation of having understudies mirror and practice an arrangement of right sentences while another accentuates the significance of empowering "common" correspondence between learners. How is an educator to assess pass on potential viability of new strategies? One essential premise for assessing is, obviously, the instructor's own particular involvement with past victories or dissatisfactions. What's more, educators who are educated about a portion of the discoveries of late research are better arranged to judge whether the new recommendations for dialect instructing are liable to achieve positive changes in understudies' learning.

Our task work is about how English dialect can be educated at classrooms on the bases of new pedagogical advancements with having contemplating the national viewpoint, i.e. impacting local Uzbek dialect and run of the mill mix-ups and challenges in learning English by Uzbek talking understudies. As a matter of first importance, we have composed it for English dialect educators who show this

dialect to Uzbek understudies at schools at 5-6 grades, yet it could likewise be helpful for fault learners who are just going to take in a superb universe of English. We trust that data about discoveries and hypothetical perspectives in second dialect procurement exploration can improve you a judge of cases made by reading material essayists and defenders of different dialect educating strategies. Such data, joined with bits of knowledge picked up from your experience as a dialect instructor or learner, can help you assess proposed changes in classroom system. The vast majority would concur dial taking in a moment dialect in a characteristic obtaining connection or 'in the city' is not the same as learning in the classroom. Numerous trust that learning 'in the city' is more compelling. This conviction might be founded on the way that best learners have had introduction to the dialect outside the classroom. What is unique about common dialect learning? Could we make the same environment in the classroom? Should we? Then again are there key commitments that lone direction—and not regular introduction—can give?

In this section, we will take a gander at five proposition which scholars have made for how second dialects ought to be taught. We will audit research on second dialect realizing which has been done in classroom settings. This will allow us to investigate further the path in which second dialect examination and hypothesis add to our comprehension of the favorable circumstances and the restrictions of various ways to deal with second dialect educating.

Before we go further, let us pause for a minute to ponder pass on contrasts amongst normal and instructional dialect learning settings. We will then take a gander at transcripts from two classrooms and attempt to comprehend what standards manage the educator in each case. Natural procurement settings ought to be comprehended as those in which the learner is presented to the dialect at work or in social communication or, if the learner is a youngster, in a school circumstance where a large portion of bite the dust other kids are local speakers of

the objective dialect and where the guideline is coordinated toward local speakers instead of toward learners of pass on dialect.²

The conventional direction environment is one where the dialect is being taught to a gathering of second or outside dialect learners. For this situation, the emphasis is on the dialect itself, as opposed to on data which is conveyed by the dialect. The educator will likely see to it that understudies learn the vocabulary and syntactic guidelines of the objective dialect. The objective of learners in such courses is regularly to pass an examination instead of to utilize the dialect for every day open communication.

Informative direction situations additionally include learners whose objective is taking in the dialect itself, yet the style of guideline places the accentuation on connection, discussion, and dialect use, as opposed to on finding out about the dialect. The themes which are talked about in the open guideline environment are frequently points of general enthusiasm to the learner, for instance, how to answer to an arranged ad from a daily paper. On the other hand, the center of a lesson might be on the topic, for example, history or science, which understudies are learning through the medium of the second dialect. In these classes, the center may sometimes be on dialect itself, yet the accentuation is on utilizing the dialect as opposed to on discussing it. The dialect which instructors use for educating is not chosen on the premise of educating a particular element of the dialect, yet on instructing learners to utilize the dialect in an assortment of settings. Understudies' accomplishment in these courses is regularly measured as far as their capacity to 'complete things' in the second dialect, instead of on their precision in utilizing certain syntactic elements. In the outline beneath, imprint an or more (+) if the trademark in the left-hand section is run of the mill of the learning environment in the three remaining segments. Mark a short (-) in the event that it is not something you as a rule find in that connection. Compose "?" in the event that you are not certain. Table 1: Comparison of characteristic and

²Austin, J.L. How to Do Things with Words. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press. 1962

instructional settings Characteristics Natural acquisition Traditional instruction

Communicative direction mistake amendment learning one thing at once
abundant time accessible for learning high proportion of local speakers to learners
assortment of dialect and talk sorts weight to talk access to adjusted information As
you take a gander at the example of + and

- Signs you have put in the graph, you will most likely discover it coordinates
the accompanying portrayals. In regular securing settings

- Learners are occasionally revised. In the event that their
conversationalists can comprehend what they are stating, they do not comment on
the accuracy of the learners' discourse. They would most likely feel it was
discourteous to do as such.

- Language is not organized orderly. In open cooperation, the learner
will be presented to a wide assortment of vocabulary and structures.

- The learner is encompassed by the dialect for a long time every day.
Some of it is tended to the learner; quite a bit of it is just 'caught'.

- The learner encounters a number of different people who use the target
language proficiently.

- The learner observes or participates in many different types of language
events: brief greetings, commercial transactions, exchanges of information,
arguments, instructions at school or in the workplace.

- Learners must often use their limited second language ability to respond to
questions or get information. In these situations, the emphasis is on getting
meaning across clearly, and more proficient speakers tend to be tolerant of errors
that do not interfere with meaning.

- Modified input is available in many one-on-one conversations. In situations
where many native speakers are involved in the conversation, however, the learner
often has difficulty getting access to language he or she can understand.

Learners in traditional instruction These differ from natural learners in that:

- Errors are frequently corrected. Accuracy tends to be given priority over
meaningful interaction.

- Input is structurally simplified and sequenced. Linguistic items are presented and practiced in isolation, one item at a time.

- There is limited time for learning (usually only a few hours a week).

- There is a small ratio of native speakers to non-native speakers. The teacher is often the only native or proficient speaker the student comes in contact with.

- Students experience a limited range of language discourse types (often a chain of 'Teacher asks a question/Student answers/Teacher evaluates response').

- Students often feel great pressure to speak or write the second language and to do so correctly from the very beginning.

- When teachers use the target language to give instructions or in other classroom management events, they often modify their language in order to ensure comprehension and compliance.

Not all language classrooms are alike. The conditions for learning differ in terms of the physical environment, the age and motivation of the students, the amount of time available for learning, and many other variables. Classrooms also differ in terms of the principles which guide teachers in their language teaching methods and techniques.³ The design of communicative language teaching programs has sought to replace some of the characteristics of traditional instruction with those more typical of natural acquisition contexts .

Communicative language teaching classrooms

Thus, in communicative language teaching classrooms we may find the following characteristics:

- There is a limited amount of error correction, and meaning is emphasized over form.

- Input is simplified and made comprehensible by the use of contextual cues, props, and gestures, rather than through structural grading (the presentation of one grammatical item at a time, in a sequence of 'simple' to 'complex').

³Behne, T., Carpenter, M. and Tomasello, M. One-year-olds comprehend the communicative intentions behind gestures in a hiding game. *Developmental Science* 8: 2005.- 492–499.

- Learners usually have only limited time for learning. Sometimes, however, subject-matter courses taught through the second language can add time for language learning.

- Contact with proficient or native speakers of the language is limited. As with traditional instruction, it is often only the teacher who is a proficient speaker. In communicative classrooms, learners have considerable exposure to the second language speech of other learners. This naturally contains errors which would not be heard in an environment where one's interlocutors are native speakers.

- A variety of discourse types are introduced through stories, role playing, the use of 'real-life' materials such as newspapers and television broadcasts, and field trips.

- There is little pressure to perform at high levels of accuracy, and there is often a greater emphasis on comprehension than on production in the early stages of learning.

- Modified input is a defining feature of this approach to instruction. The teacher in these classes makes every effort to speak to students in a level of language they can understand. In addition, other students speak a simplified language.

The contrasting results of the native language immersion program teaching experiments (focuses on grammar) may also be explained by potential differences in input. But in this case, it seems more likely that differences in the experimental teaching materials and methodology may have contributed to the different results. Although both sets of materials had as their goal to provide learners with the opportunity to use the linguistic forms in a variety of functionally-based communicative practice activities, the instructional materials for the 'past tense' study (past tenses) may not have been sufficiently form-focused or did not draw the learners' attention to their language use as frequently and as explicitly as the instructional materials for the 'conditional' study (conditionals).⁴ While this is a

⁴Berger, C.R. Interpersonal communication: Theoretical perspectives, future prospects. *Journal of Communication* 55: 2005.- 415-447.

possible explanation, other factors may have contributed to the different outcomes. For example, it could be that the two linguistic structures under investigation respond to instruction in different ways or that even the relatively small differences in the age of the learners played a role.

1.2 Communicative approach in language teaching

All the "methods" described so far are symbolic of the progress foreign language teaching ideology underwent in the last century. These were methods that came and went, influenced or gave birth to new methods - in a cycle that could only be described as "competition between rival methods" or "passing fads" in the methodological theory underlying foreign language teaching. Finally, by the mid-eighties or so, the industry was maturing in its growth and moving towards the concept of a broad "approach" to language teaching that encompassed various methods, motivations for learning English, types of teachers and the needs of individual classrooms and students themselves. It would be fair to say that if there is any one "umbrella" approach to language teaching that has become the accepted "norm" in this field, it would have to be the Communicative Language Teaching Approach. This is also known as CLT.

The Communicative approach does a lot to expand on the goal of creating "communicative competence" compared to earlier methods that professed the same objective. Teaching students how to use the language is considered to be at least as important as learning the language itself. Brown (1994) aptly describes the "march" towards CLT:

"Beyond grammatical discourse elements in communication, we are probing the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language. We are exploring pedagogical means for 'real-life' communication in the classroom. We are trying to get our learners to develop linguistic fluency, not just the accuracy that has so consumed our historical journey. We are equipping our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance 'out there' when they leave the womb of our classrooms. We are concerned with how to facilitate lifelong

language learning among our students, not just with the immediate classroom task. We are looking at learners as partners in a cooperative venture. And our classroom practices seek to draw on whatever intrinsically sparks learners to reach their fullest potential."

CLT is a generic approach, and can seem non-specific at times in terms of how to actually go about using practices in the classroom in any sort of systematic way. There are many interpretations of what CLT actually means and involves. See *Types of Learning and The PPP Approach* to see how CLT can be applied in a variety of 'more specific' methods.⁵

From the remarks already made, it should be obvious that the current interest in tasks stems largely from what has been termed 'the communicative approach' to language teaching. In this section I should like to briefly sketch out some of the more important principles underpinning communicative language teaching.

Although it is not always immediately apparent, everything we do in the classroom is underpinned by beliefs about the nature of language and about language learning. In recent years there have been some dramatic shifts in attitude towards both language and learning. This has sometimes resulted in contradictory messages to the teaching profession which, in turn, has led to confusion.

Among other things, it has been accepted that language is more than simply a system of rules. Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning. In terms of learning, it is generally accepted that we need to distinguish between 'learning that' and 'knowing how'. In other words, we need to distinguish between knowing various grammatical rules and being able to use the rules effectively and appropriately when communicating.

This view has underpinned communicative language teaching (CLT). A great deal has been written and said about CLT, and it is something of a misnomer to talk about 'the communicative approach' as there is a family of approaches, each

1. ⁵Bim I.L. Changing process of foreign language learning in a high school // Foreign languages. - 1991.

member of which claims to be 'communicative' (in fact, it is difficult to find approaches which claim not to be communicative!). There is also frequent disagreement between different members of the communicative family.

During the seventies, the insight that communication was an integrated process rather than a set of discrete learning outcomes created a dilemma for syllabus designers, whose task has traditionally been to produce ordered lists of structural, functional or notional items graded according to difficulty, frequency or pedagogic convenience. Processes belong to the domain of methodology. They are somebody else's business. They cannot be reduced to lists of items. For a time, it seems, the syllabus designer was to be out of business.

One of the clearest presentations of a syllabus proposal based on processes rather than products has come from Breen. He suggests that an alternative to the listing of linguistic content (the end point, as it were, in the learner's journey) would be to prioritize the route itself; a focusing upon the means towards the learning of a new language. Here the designer would give priority to the changing process of learning and the potential of the classroom — to the psychological and social resources applied to a new language by learners in the classroom context. ... a greater concern with capacity for communication rather than repertoire of communication, with the activity of learning a language viewed as important as the language itself, and with a focus upon means rather than predetermined objectives, all indicate priority of process over content. (Breen 1984: 52-3)

What Breen is suggesting is that, with communication at the centre of the curriculum, the goal of that curriculum (individuals who are capable of using the target language to communicate with others) and the means (classroom activities which develop this capability) begin to merge; the syllabus must take account of both the ends and the means.

What then do we do with our more formal approaches to the specification of structures and skills? Can they be found a place in CLT? We can focus on this issue by considering the place of grammar.

For some time after the rise of CLT, the status of grammar in the curriculum was rather uncertain. Some linguists maintained that it was not necessary to teach grammar, that the ability to use a second language (knowing 'how') would develop automatically if the learner were required to focus on meaning in the process of using the language to communicate. In recent years, this view has come under serious challenge, and it now seems to be widely accepted that there is value in classroom tasks which require learners to focus on form. It is also accepted that grammar is an essential resource in using language communicatively.

This is certainly Littlewood's view. In his introduction to communicative language teaching, he suggests that the following skills need to be taken into consideration:

— The learner must attain as high a degree as possible of linguistic competence. That is, he must develop skill in manipulating the linguistic system, to the point where he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express his intended message.

— The learner must distinguish between the forms he has mastered as part of his linguistic competence, and the communicative functions which they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of a linguistic system must also be understood as part of a communicative system.

— The learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations. He must learn to use feedback to judge his success, and if necessary, remedy failure by using different language.

— The learner must become aware of the social meaning of language forms. For many learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones.

(Littlewood 1981: 6)

At this point, you might like to consider your own position on this matter. Do you think that considerations of content selection and grading (i.e. selecting and grading grammar, functions, notions, topics, pronunciation, vocabulary etc.) should be kept separate from the selection and grading of tasks, or not? As we have already pointed out, we take the view that any comprehensive curriculum needs to take account of both means and ends and must address both content and process. In the final analysis, it does not really matter whether those responsible for specifying learning tasks are called 'syllabus designers' or 'methodologists'. What matters is that both processes and outcomes are taken care of and that there is a compatible and creative relationship between the two.⁶

Whatever the position taken, there is no doubt that the development of communicative language teaching has had a profound effect on both methodology and syllabus design, and has greatly enhanced the status of the learning 'task' within the curriculum.

Students need to be understood and to be able to say what they want to say. Their pronunciation should be at least adequate for that purpose. They need to know the various sounds that occur in the language and differentiate between them. They should be able to apply certain rules, eg. past tense endings, t, d or id. Likewise, a knowledge of correct rhythm and stress and appropriate intonation is essential. In Extract 1, the teacher plays the part of ringmaster. He asks the questions (most of which are 'display' questions which require the learners to provide answers which the teacher already knows). The only student-initiated interaction is on a point of vocabulary.

- In the second extract, the learners have a much more active role. They communicate directly with each other, rather than exclusively with the teacher as is the case in Extract 1, and one student is allowed to take on the role of provider of

2. ⁶Bosco, F. M., M. Bucciarelli, and B. G. Bara The fundamental context categories in understanding communicative intention. *Journal of Pragmatics* 36: 2004.,- 467–488.

content. During the interaction it is the learner who is the 'expert' and the teacher who is the 'learner' or follower.

From time to time, it is a good idea to record and analyse interactions in your own classroom. These interactions can either be between you and your students, or between students as they interact in small-group work. If you do, you may be surprised at the disparity between what you thought at the time was happening, and what actually took place as recorded on the tape. You should not be disconcerted if you do find such a disparity. In my experience, virtually all teachers, even the most experienced, discover dimensions to the lesson which they were unaware of at the time the lesson took place. (These will not all be negative, of course.)

The raw data of interaction, as above, are often illuminating. The following reactions were provided by a group of language teachers at an inservice workshop. The teachers had recorded, transcribed and analysed a lesson which they had recently given and were asked (among other things) to report back on what they had discovered about their own teaching, and about the insights they had gained into aspects of classroom management and interaction. Most of the comments referred, either explicitly or implicitly, to teacher/learner roles:

'As teachers we share an anxiety about "dominating" and so a common assumption that we are too intrusive, directive etc.' 'I need to develop skills for responding to the unexpected and exploit this to realise the full potential of the lesson.' 'There are umpteen aspects which need improving. There is also the effort of trying to respond to contradictory notions about teaching (e.g. intervention versus non-intervention).' 'I had been making a conscious effort to be non-directive, but was far more directive than I had thought.'⁷

'Using small groups and changing groups can be perplexing and counterproductive, or helpful and stimulating. There is a need to plan carefully to make sure such changes are positive.'

⁷Burgoon, J. K. and A. E. Bacue Nonverbal communication skills. In: J. O. Greene and B. Burleson (eds.), *Handbook of Communication and Interaction Skills*, 3–50. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. 2003

1.3 The concept of communicative competence in linguistics

The ability of people to reach their goals in social life depends to a large extent on their communicative competence. Dell Hymens introduced the notion of ‘communicative competence’ in the 1960s (1962, 1964, and 1972) to emphasize that the knowledge of grammatical rules is not sufficient for speaking a language and for communicating. There is a shared belief in many societies that good communication has many constraints and that one of the most important constraints is the underlying ability of the interlocutors. As Steven Wilson and Christina Sabee (2003: 3–4) put it:

Why have so many scholars, from so many fields, studied communicative competence within so many relational, institutional, and cultural contexts? Our hunch is that scholars, as well as the contemporary Western societies in which most live and work, widely accept the following tacit beliefs: (a) within any situation, not all things that can be said and done are equally competent; (b) success in personal and professional relationships depends, in no small part, on communicative competence; and (c) most people display incompetence in at least a few situations, and a smaller number are judged incompetent across many situations.

Like most central concepts in empirical sciences, the notion of communicative competence comprises theoretical, methodological, and practical aspects. With respect to theory, the internal and external structure of the concept should be well defined and contribute to an embedding theory, together with other concepts. In methodological terms, the concept should be based on objective, reliable, and valid measurements, which are connected to successful intervention procedures. Finally, the concept should support the application of the theory to practice in real life.

Theoretical relevance. Communicative competence is a complex term with a rich internal and external structure. Regarding the internal structure, we have to relate it to subordinated terms such as effectiveness and appropriateness. Whereas effectiveness describes the outcome of communicative competence,

appropriateness connects it with the situational conditions of the actual social interaction.

The external structure of a concept is given by its embedding theory and other related concepts of this theory. What is the relationship to similar concepts as performance or skill, and how can communicative competence be described in terms of knowledge, motivation, emotion, and behavior? In addition, what processes and settings are important for a general and integrative theory of communicative competence? Finally, how is communicative competence developed, and how can this development be influenced?

Methodological relevance. Being closely connected to the theoretical relevance of a scientific concept, its methodological relevance must be clarified. Only on the basis of objective, reliable, and valid observation procedures is it possible to build up clear theoretical terms. In recent years, research has made remarkable progress with regard to good empirical studies.

Practical relevance. Theoretical and methodological quality provides a solid basis for the purposes of applied research. When looking into the by now about hundred-years-old history of linguistics, we will find many concepts whose relevance for practical application is anything but clear.⁸ The concept of communicative competence is a strong counter-example. From its first introduction into linguistics in the early 1960s, it was meant as a means to support practical procedures for assessment and intervention in real life settings. A large number of chapters in this book are devoted to giving an overview of the present state of art in these fields of application.

The scientific history of the concept of communicative competence began in the 1960s as a counter-movement against the so-called “linguistic competence” introduced by the structural linguist Noam Chomsky (1965), who based linguistic theory on an ideal speaker-listener with perfect linguistic knowledge, which is

⁸ Canary, D. J. and M. J. Cody *Interpersonal Communication. A Goals-Based Approach*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

supposed to be unaffected by cognitive and situational factors during actual linguistic performance. Among others, the philosopher Jürgen Habermas (1970) and the sociolinguist Dell Hymes (1972) argued that Chomsky's concept could not serve as a relevant component in a theory of real-life communication. Habermas argued, "that general semantics cannot be developed sufficiently on the narrow basis of the mono-logical linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky" (1970: 137–138). However, similar to Chomsky's idea of an idealized speaker-hearer, he idealized the speech situation: "Above all, communicative competence relates to an ideal speech situation in the same way that linguistic competence relates to the abstract system of linguistic rules. The dialogue constitutive universals at the same time generate and describe the form of intersubjectivity, which makes mutuality of understanding possible. Communicative competence is defined by the ideal speaker's mastery of the dialogue constitutive universals irrespective of the actual restrictions under empirical conditions" (Habermas 1970: 140–141).

Contrary to Chomsky and Habermas, the sociolinguist Dell Hymes related his conception of communicative competence not only to theoretical, but also to practical needs. He argued that the theoretical and the practical problems converge. "It is not that there exists a body of linguistic theory that practical research can turn to and has only to apply. It is rather that work motivated by practical needs may help build the theory that we need"(Hymes1972:269).

Consequently, he rejected the dichotomy of competence and performance. Instead, he looked upon the two concepts as two sides of a coin: Performance is the observable part, and competence is the inferred ability to produce the observed performance in the future. Hymes suggested that both competence and performance may be influenced by special cognitive and social factors, and that their interrelationship should be investigated with empirical methods.

Instead of a dichotomy of competence/performance, Hymes (1972: 281) proposed that the following four questions should be asked for a comprehensive study of language and communication:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;

2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to which degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

The question of formal possibility refers to grammatical and cultural rules of an utterance or another communicative action. Both verbal and other communicative behavior can be judged according to its obeying to the rules within a formal system. The question of feasibility is based on psycholinguistic factors such as memory and other cognitive, emotional, and behavioral limitations caused by features of the human brain and body in relation to their physical environment. The question of appropriateness relates the communicative action to its social environment. The basic point is here what behavior can be expected in a specific communication situation. And the question of actual performance points to the necessity of empirical observation of a certain communicative event. In addition, its probability of occurrence should be registered because this probability contributes to the quality of the related competence.

Further important milestones in the development of a comprehensive notion of communicative competence were, among others, the contributions by John Wiemann (1977), and Spitsbergen and Cupach (1984/1989). Research in interpersonal communication has directed at understanding how communication is used in forming relationships and what factors play a role in social interactions. A central factor of John M. Wiemann's (1977) model of communicative competence is interaction management.⁹ His aim was to develop a theory of communication competence that was robust and that could be used to understand communication behavior in a particular situation. In this attempt, the importance of individual and

1. ⁹Daly, J. A. and A. L. Vangelisti Skillfully instructing learners: How Communicators effectively convey messages. In: J. O. Greene and B. Burleson (eds.), *Handbook of Communication and Interaction Skills*, 871–908. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. 2003

relational goals, strategies and motivations for achieving these goals, planning routines, emotions, and cognitive abilities became evident. He developed a model composed of the following five dimensions: “(1) affiliation/support, (2) social relaxation, (3) empathy, (4) behavioral flexibility, and (5) interaction management skills” (Wiemann 1977: 197). His model is based on earlier approaches to the study of competence, such as Goffman’s (1959) self-presentation approach, in which human is described as an actor who plays various roles to various audiences. According to Goffman, the competent communicator is one who is aware of the quality of encounters as demonstrated by her or his presentation of appropriate faces and lines and the support of the faces and lines presented by others. The second basis of Wiemann’s model was the human-relation or T-group approach (Argyris 1962, 1965; Bochner and Kelly 1974). They mentioned five skills of communicative competence:

(1) empathy,

(2) descriptiveness, i.e., the manner in which feed back is given and received,

(3) owning feelings and thoughts, (4) self-disclosure, and (5) behavioral flexibility. The social-skill approach by Argyle (1969) was the most important example for Wiemann’s model. Argyle defined “skill” as an “organized, coordinated activity in relation to an object or a situation, which involves a whole chain of sensory, central and motor mechanisms” (p. 180). Argyle developed the following specific dimensions of communicative competence: (1) extroversion and affiliation, (2) dominance-submission, (3) poise-social anxiety, (4) rewardingness, (5) interaction skills, (6) perceptual sensitivity, and (7) role-taking ability. Because of their centrality to communicative competence, Argyle (1969) mentioned two general interaction management skills (1) “the ability to establish and sustain a smooth and easy pattern of interaction” and (2) the ability to maintain control of the interaction without dominating. Based on these three approaches to communicative competence, Wiemann (1977) developed his own model, which was tested in an experiment. Results indicated a strong, positive, linear relationship

between interaction management and communicative competence. The conclusion from his study was that “the competent communicator is one who is other-oriented, while at the same time maintaining the ability to accomplish his own interpersonal goals. This other-orientation is demonstrated by the communicator being empathic, affiliative and supportive, and relaxed while interacting with others. [...] It is this communicative competence which enables a person, in a very real and practical way, to establish a social identity”.

Similarly, Spitzberg and colleagues (Spitzberg and Cupach 1984; Spitzberg and Hurt 1987) identify four global constructs: interaction management, altercentrism, expressiveness, and composure, which are each represented by overt molecular behaviors. Interaction management is represented by such behaviors as questions, interruptions, and talk time, while altercentrism is indicated by head nods, body lean, and smiling. Vocal variety, appropriate use of humor, and appropriate facial expression are indicants of expressiveness, while vocal tension, object manipulation, and postural rigidity are associated with composure. Spitzberg and Cupach (1984) discuss the question whether competence should be defined as a trait or a state. Traits are viewed as dispositions while states are situational events or occurrences (Fridhandler 1986). They argue that: “competence as a trait ultimately must boil down to an individual effectively communicating across contexts – with different environments, with diverse goals and topics. This consistency of performance is really tantamount to general communicative adaptability and behavioral flexibility” (Spitzberg and Cupach 1984:92).

In their “Handbook of Interpersonal Competence Research”, Spitzberg and Cupach (1989) gave a well structured overview of the state of the art in this complex field. Their book “is a research book. As such, it is designed to present and assess approaches and techniques for studying and measuring interpersonal competence”. They chose the term “interpersonal competence”, because the term “refers to the process whereby people effectively deal with each other, as the most general term” whereas “the term communicative competence often implies a focus

on appropriate symbolic behavior manifested in social and inter- personal contexts”. The aim of their handbook was “to review existing measures of interpersonal communication and cognate constructs, in order to facilitate further research” (Spitzberg and Cupach 1989:234).

The last milestone in the study of communication skills to mention herein our overview is the “Handbook of Communication and Social Interaction Skills”, which was edited by John O. Greene and Brant R. Burleson (2003). Their book – with a focus on relationships instead of the individual – aimed at producing “the most comprehensive, authoritative source available on communication skills and skills enhancement – a volume with both practical and theoretical significance”. Bringing together a number of perspectives from different disciplines, such as social psychology, sociolinguistics, sociology, and communication, the book demonstrates the considerable progress that has been made in understanding skillful social interaction in different contexts and the significance of communicative skills for interpersonal relationships at various levels.

In most communication situations, we have two or more communication partners with some internal knowledge who are connected to each other by the following five links:

- Information transmission and feedback
- Informational medium
- Referential knowledge
- Partner knowledge and mind reading
- Physical and social situation.

Most researchers would certainly agree to this rough scheme of the underlying structure of communication. However, the concrete models of communication and communicative competence differ considerably

Figure 1. Structure of communication (based on Strohner 2001).

Communication results from the overlapping of message production and reception processes, based on communicative intentions and different types of

knowledge.¹⁰ The transmission of the message implies, among others, anticipatory processes on the side of the message producer, and inferential processes on the side of message recipient.

In them, the integrated scheme is divided into many tiny parts, processes, and functions. Research projects are carried out, many of which yield empirically based, yet specific results. One question to ask is how to describe the overall structure of communication by integrating the obtained results of the different special projects. So, the problem is: How can a comprehensive and integrated theory of communicative competence be developed combining the various results in the broad area of communicative competence and how does this development relate to the basic notion of communication?

We suppose that in the field of communication the distinction of the following dimensions will be helpful:

- Communication as information exchange,
- Communication as mental-state reading and influencing,
- Communication as interaction,
- Communication as situation management.

In the following, we will only outline some theoretical approaches without going into a detailed discussion.

In every communicative event, information processing is a basic part. At least two independent information-processing systems are involved, which intentionally exchange messages using an informational medium. However, the wide-spread conception of communication as consisting of a sender encoding a message and sending it via an information channel to a receiver, who decodes it (based on Shannon and Weaver's information theory), grasps only part of the relevant processes in human communication.

As already mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, communicative competence is of central importance not only for scientific purposes, but also for

¹⁰Elizarova GV Culture and foreign language learning. - StP.: Soyuz, 2001.

practical application. A certain amount and quality of communicative competence is needed not only in social interaction at the interpersonal level, but also at organizational and public levels, as well as for intercultural exchanges. Many individual and social problems in our societies arise, however, because people are not sufficiently competent with respect to certain aspects of communication. The consequences concern interpersonal relationships, academic and professional success, but also psychological and health problems. Higher levels of communicative proficiency facilitate a better social, psychological, and physical life.

In order to explicate the concept of communicative competence, we firstly look at its behavioral basis composed of many communicative skills. Therefore, the relation between competence and skill has to be clarified. Then the two most important criteria of communicative competence, i.e. effectiveness and appropriateness, are described.

Although there is great interest in the notion of communicative competence in science and real-life application, the concept is not easy to define in a general way. The reasons lie in the complexity of communication, the wide variety of related cognitive and social abilities, and also the huge situational variability. What we need in the field of communication, similar to the field of intelligence, is the specification of domain specific abilities.

Burleson (2003) specifies a number of fundamental interaction skills, such as nonverbal communication skills, discourse and conversation skills, message production and reception skills, and impression management skills.¹¹ The volume also discusses functional skills such as informing, explaining, arguing and persuasion, as well as specific skills in personal relationships and in public and professional contexts.

¹¹Gillotti, C., T. Thompson, and K. McNeilis Communicative competence in the delivery of bad news. *Social Science and Medicine* 54: 2002., 1011–1023.

Specifying communication skills for a rather narrow range of particular behaviors and situations makes it easier to define them and to analyze methods for assessment and intervention. A certain skill is related to specific knowledge, emotion and, of course, sensory-motor behavior. In accordance with this conception, Brian Spitzberg (2003: 95) proposes the following definition of skills: “Skills, therefore, are generally thought to be manifestations of some underlying ability, which is a capacity for action. This capacity is typically conceptualized as a function of numerous motivation (e.g., confidence, goals, reinforcement potential, etc.) and knowledge (e.g., content and procedural knowledge, familiarity, etc.) components.”

As any social behavior, communication skills are not independent of functional and situational influences. It often occurs that people manifest very different skill qualities in different situations, be it self-presentation, empathy or conflict management.

Given that communication is enacted to reach a certain goal, a central criterion for communicative competence is effectiveness. This is a functional attribute, which may relate to the ability to achieve or to infer a speaker’s meaning (e.g. that an utterance is meant ironic), or to the achievement of the goal behind this intent (e.g., that this irony is meant as a critique or as a joke;). As Spitzberg and Cupach (1989) pointed out “effectiveness derives from control and is defined as successful goal achievement or task accomplishment”. In cases where functions and goals of communicative actions are not clear, or if there are multiple functions, the analysis of effectiveness is problematic.

In some situations, it is important to know not only that a certain action is accomplished, but also, how much time and energy consumption this has taken. The notion of efficiency refers to such a higher level of effectiveness.

In the process stage of planning, the communicative goal is transformed into the plan of action chosen to achieve that goal. Plans for accomplishing communicative goals may vary widely in complexity. They may consist of a large number of hierarchically organized sub-goals and steps involved in the preparation

of a speech or in the arrangement of an appointment. They may also consist in the simple planning of a short sarcastic answer to a request. Planning complexity varies not only in dependence on situational demands, but also between speakers (Berger 1997). A higher level of plan complexity may be related to higher communicative competence if required by situational contingencies; however, it may also have debilitating effects on communication effectiveness, if plans for communication are so complex that they cannot be executed efficiently. The complexity of plans is also dependent on cognitive resource limitations and therefore affected by cognitive loads through too many goals or ambiguous situations (Waldron 1990).

Communicative competence comprises not only the ability to produce messages in a way that their intents can be inferred by others and that their interpersonal goals can be accomplished, but also the ability to receive messages conveyed by others. Therefore, an important part of cognitive processes involved in communicative competence deal with inferring the speaker's intentions.

Cognitive models of message reception usually assume two main stages in the processing of messages: (1) understanding literal meaning and (2) understanding speaker's meaning (Airenti, Bara, and Colombetti 1993; Wyer and Adaval 2003). A third stage concerns the communicative effect on the addressee (such as forming a new belief), which is to a large degree dependent on evaluation processes. Additional phases of processing a communicative act, addressed by Airenti et al., include reaction (generating the intentions for a response) and overt response. These phases are not discussed here, as they overlap largely with processes of message production.

Understanding literal meaning or sentence meaning depends on a large number of cognitive processes, which are subject to theories of sentence processing (see for example, Gernsbacher 1990; MacWhinney and Bates 1989; Rohde and Plaut 2003) and which each constitute complex research areas in their own right. With respect to accounts of message reception, it is often emphasized that the literal meaning needs not be transmitted by linguistic means, but can also

be conveyed in nonverbal communication (nodding or smiling or waving a hand) or in other ways (such as using pictures). These forms can be equivalent to linguistic means (for saying goodbye, or expressing joy or affirmation, or giving a route direction); their correct interpretation, i.e. inferring the intended meaning, depends on knowledge about the according cultural conventions (e.g., whether nodding is used for affirmation or for negation). In other instances, the intended literal meaning can only be conveyed by using language; deciphering it requires knowledge of the language rules and may depend on procedural knowledge providing a sufficiently fast activation of the intended knowledge structures.¹² The linguistic representation of a sentence need not necessarily be complete, detailed and accurate (Ferreira, Bailey and Ferraro 2002).

The message is interpreted in terms of conceptual structures in long-term memory. As Wyer and Adaval (2003) point out, several alternative concepts may be assigned to a message, and which of them are activated may depend on their accessibility in long-term memory, which in turn may be influenced by factors such as recent activation, frequency of activation, and current goals. As people are often not aware of the factors that led them to apply one piece of knowledge rather than another one, biases can occur in interpreting messages. Another process contributing to literal message representation is the construction of current representations relating and instantiating generalized concepts based on imagination. It is now widely accepted that representing sentence meaning usually involves the construction of a representation of the situation described – besides wording-based and propositional representations. Such mental representations of what a discourse is about have become known as mental models (Johnson-Laird 1983) or situation models (van Dijk and Kintsch 1983) and consist of a mental simulation of the events described. Garrod and Pickering (2004) argue that the success of communication depends on the extent to which the interlocutors' situation models correspond in important aspects.

¹²Gluhov B.A., Schukin A.N. Terms of Russian language tutoring methodology as a foreign language. - M., 1993

To infer the speaker's communicative intent, starting from the literal meaning, the addressee may take advantage of nonverbal clues, prosody, contextual information and information from long-term memory (such as knowledge about the partner or about cultural conventions). Using these types of information, the listener might interpret the sentence "It's raining," as advice to take an umbrella or as starting a small talk or as a response to an earlier argument. The representation of the message has been shown to depend on the listener's perception of speaker intention (specifically, attributed viewpoints), as evidenced by sentence recognition patterns (Wertsch 1975). An important indicator that the literal meaning deviates from the speaker's meaning and that a statement should not be taken literally at all would be a violation of communication expectancies. Communication expectancies are individual representations of norms for nonverbal behavior and language use. Both Grice's (1975) theory of conversational implicature and Burgoon's (1993, 1995) expectancy violations theory assume that competent communication involves following as well as strategically violating communication expectancies. In terms of Grice's theory, a speaker that violates one of the conversation maxims (quantity or informativeness, quality or truthfulness, relevance to topic and purpose of talk, and manner or clarity of talk) needed to converse in a cooperative way will be assumed by the addressee to adhere to the maxims at a deeper level. Therefore, the listener would reinterpret the message as being hyperbolic, ironic, sarcastic, humoristic, etc. According to expectancy violations theory, engagement in unexpected behavior of an interlocutor increases arousal, which leads to an orientation response, in which attention is shifted away from the topic of discourse to the interlocutor and the meaning of the violation itself. Studies based on expectancy violations theory have addressed mainly aspects of communicative effect and nonverbal communication.

Communicative competence is based on a number of representations and knowledge structures underlying communication, which are used for both conveying and reading intentions. To understand and produce messages, we rely not only on our knowledge of the language at several levels (or nonverbal means to

express ideas), general knowledge about the world, cultural schemata and represented constraints, specific situation models, and representations of our own mental and physical states, goals and intentions, but also assumptions about the other person(s) involved in the communication and about their goals, intentions, feelings, attitudes, opinions and knowledge. However, it is a matter of some controversy to what extent we need explicit representations of our interlocutors' mental states and fully fledged theories of mind in each case of communication.

Another type of mutual knowledge relevant to communication accounts is shared information or common ground that is background knowledge and assumptions shared between speaker and addressee (e.g. Clark 1996; Clark and Brennan 1991). So, this is not mutual knowledge about communicative intentions, but rather shared knowledge about anything relevant to the contents of the conversation. For example, a definite reference such as "the movie" may be appropriate and understandable if both interlocutors know that the addressee watched a specific movie the night before and if each of them knows that the other one knows. Common ground may stem from community membership, physical co-presence, or linguistic co-presence (Clark and Marshall 1981), and is accumulated during conversation. This includes the process of grounding, in which both interlocutors assure themselves of the addressee's sufficient understanding of what has been said, as a basis for updating their common ground (Clark and Brennan 1991; Clark and Krych 2004). All these processes involve a mental representation of their interlocutor's mind – similar to the theory of mind discussed in the previous section. This modeling of the partner's mind is also assumed to provide the basis for partner-specific message production (Herrmann 1983; Herrmann and Grabowski 1994; the literature on situated speaking is reviewed in Rickheit and Vorweg 2003).

Developmental issues bear on several aspects of the concept of communicative competence. The individual development of communicative competence is not only an important research area in its own right; it is also discussed to elucidate controversial or outstanding issues on the one hand and to

provide a touch stone for theoretical assertions on the other hand. One such issue under discussion is the relation between intentionality, metalizing and communicative abilities. As this aspect is very central for the concept of communicative competence, we will present the main lines of reasoning and related empirical findings in the following.

Given that communication involves the intention to convey a message on the part of the message producer, and the inferring of a speaker's message on the part of the message receiver, the question is how and when children develop communicative intentions and to what degree mind-reading abilities bear upon this development. Mind-reading abilities might be involved in understanding the other's intentions, but also in representing the other person as someone who is able to understand my intentions.

Children learn to mean long before they can use a lexical system to express their intentions; they may or they may not use imitations of adult phonology to express an intention during that early period (Halliday 1975). Infants typically come to employ gestures or sounds (or combinations of them) to make their intentions known around 9 or 10 months of age (Bates, Camaioni and Volterra 1975; Halliday 1975). However, there is a wide range of variability between children; some begin to produce words even earlier, some later, and most infants at 8 months of age use at least some gestures to signal their wishes (Fenson, Dale, Reznick, Bates, Thal and Pethick 1994). Examples include extending one's arms to be picked up, showing an object, or reaching to an object to get help in obtaining it. Generally, non-linguistic intentional communication appears prior to speech (e.g., Bruner 1975).¹³ Because communicative behavior does essentially not use conventional means of the target language during that phase, it has been termed the illocutionary phase (Bates et al. 1975). The emergence of intentional communication during that phase is preceded by a phase (called perlocutionary by

¹³Greene and B. Burlison (eds.), *Handbook of Communication and Interaction Skills*, 835–870. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bates and colleagues) in which the mother is interpreting her child's behavior as if it was communicative and reacts accordingly. If the mother is consistent in her interpretations of the child's intents and reactions, the child may form a basis for a communicative use of such behaviors (e.g., Bruner 1975). During that phase – especially during about the first six months – infants either engage in purely dyadic interactions with the mother (or another key person) called protoconversations (Bateson 1975), or they focus on objects only.

In contrast, coordinated person-object orientation (Sugarman 1984) or joint attention (Scaife and Bruner 1975; Camaioni 1993) are regarded as essential in establishing communicative intentions. This type of triadic engagement involves both being responsive to the other person and participating in a shared activity; so, this activity means sharing intentions and perceptions with respect to something external to the mother-child dyad (Tomasello et al. 2005). This involves viewing the other person as pursuing goals and showing interest or attention. Whereas proto-imperatives (the infant's expressed wish to obtain something) could in principle be explained without assuming a representation of the other as having internal states, proto-declaratives (the infant's attempt to direct interest or attention) require an understanding of internal states, such as attention (Camaioni 1993). Accordingly, declarative pointing emerges later than imperative pointing, and it is linked to understanding others' intentions (Camaioni, Perucchini, Bellagamba and Colonesi 2004). There is also a dissociation between the production of proto-imperatives and of proto-declaratives in autistic children. These deficits in triadic engagement and joint attention might be due to a difference between perceiving others as "agents of action" with desires and representing them as individual "agents of contemplation" According to Tomasello and colleagues, intention reading is one of the most basic social-cognitive skills and foundational for other mind-reading abilities. Experimental results suggest that 1-year-old infants are able to recognize others' intentions from gaze direction, emotional expression and reaching and grasping gestures. Other studies with children between 14 and 18 months found that the infants inferred the

communicative intent of a gesture indicating a location in a hiding game (Behne, Carpenter and Tomasello 2005), that they imitatively learned actions even if the adult was not successful in performing them (Melzoff 1995) and that they learned only those that seemed intentional, not accidental (Carpenter, Akhtar and Tomasello 1998). Altogether, these results suggest that pre-speech infants are able to infer others' intentions including communicative intentions.¹⁴ The importance of joint attention for the development of communicative competence has been shown in another study, which provided evidence that early skills of gestural and linguistic communication are predicted by the quantity of time spent in joint engagement and the extent to which mothers used language that reflected their children's focus of attention (Carpenter, Nagell and Tomasello 1998).

All these results about the emergence of communicative skills suggest that early communicative acts depend on shared intentionality requiring intention-reading abilities; however, these mind-reading abilities seem to be very basic and do not imply that the infant's understanding of communicative intents is fully Gricean.

CHAPTER II THE MAIN APPROACHES TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' DISCOURSE COMPETENCE

2.1 Cognitive approach in formation of discourse competence in foreign language teaching for linguistic universities

There has been more confined in the World reminding a global village - large multilingualistic and multicultural village, but the communication here is possible only via interlinguistic and intercultural mutual-understanding and interrelation.

Stability and World prosperity in the third millennium in most cases will be depend on an ability of young generation to be tolerant, to respect other cultural

¹⁴Habermas, J. Toward a theory of communicative competence. In: H. P. Dreitzel(ed.), *Re-cent Sociology* No. 2, 1970.,- 115-148. New York: Macmillan.

and social peculiarities, willpower and desire to understand each other and to cooperate, to look for and find ways of social conflicts regulation.

Integration processes in Europe and in other places, transition from bipolar to multipolar cooperation, from cultures dialogue to multilogue, constant academic mobility rising of young people demands not only desire to understand speakers, but primarily readiness to master their language. Hoping that the 21st century will be mutual-understanding century without ethnic, racial and cultural barriers cooperation. Breaking these barriers depends on will power, desire and capacity of people to solve interethnic, interconfessional and intercultural conflicts. It is possible only via understanding and respect of people social-cultural differences and practical implementation of appropriate principles of intercultural communication.

Obviously, the issues of intercultural communication rise today, relating globalization processes, especially within business-integration, new informative technologies developing, beyond information bodies and business, private contacts. Uzbekistan gradually enters the World community that demands new approach learning foreign languages of linguistic and non-linguistic university students, who use foreign language as a tool of further professional activity. Thus, analyzing economic activity in the foreign terms, A.Yu. Popov stresses, “Contacts with foreign partners, that was episodic via interpreter earlier, but now it is reality of our daily life”. As result, E.I. Passov writes that there is a contradiction between rapid increased demands of society to improve “foreign literacy”, on the one hand, and non-effective foreign languages system of education, not contributing specified positive result, on the other hand. Due to each person within the multiple social functions own result comprehension is individual, the objective of foreign languages learning is not the set of concrete skills, but the linguistic individuality formatting, where foreign language is necessary “for life”, “for communication in the real situation” and which is sufficient in the other cultures communication. The criteria of real sufficient communication is its productivity, achieving mutual-beneficial results. Foreign language is used by gradulators of economical

universities in foreign official companies, communicating in different professional conferences, in private communication. The ability to adapt in new informative means, technologies and streams (in terms of their credibility, professional essence, novelty, communicative relevance); to be professionally prepared to international business-communication; the skill to adapt all individual features within particular labor market, qualified characteristics of modern gradulators - all of these matters determine their certain advantages, contribute their carrier rise, ultimately, their life success.

This describes the relevance of intercultural competence formatting - “the ability of linguistic individual to cut the edge of own culture and to have culture mediator features, keeping own cultural identity”.¹⁵ With that one of the major task of the current issue exploration stage is to create cognitive approach concept via intercultural communication competence formation.

The competence of the English language includes in itself the phonetics, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic, linguistic, communicative competence, i.e. monologue, speaking, dialogue speaking competence, writing, competence, critical thinking and logical competence, spiritual competences and others.

Phonetic competence deal with the differentiation of speech sounds, intonation and speech rhythm, the appropriateness use of intonation, the use of letters on the bases of phonetic rules and expressing the speech technique. It is also important to form skills and knowledge on the differentiating the communicative types of sentence with intonation (declarative, interrogative, exclamatory), the appropriateness use of tones and prosody, the techniques of listening skills, differentiating of sound in communication and have knowledge on the sequences of letters and sounds in language and speech.

Lexical competence includes in itself the formation of words, the use of words in spoken and written texts according to the content, speaking and its

¹⁵Happé, F. G.E. Communicative competence and theory of mind in autism: A test of relevance theory. *Cognition* 48: 1991.,- 101–119.

appropriate place, the importance of international words and understanding the essence of these phenomena.

Grammatical competence requires to have skills and knowledge on the parts of speech, the grammatical structure of the language, the sentence, grammatical parts of speech and their features, the main points of syntax and grammatical peculiarities of sentences in different languages.

Sociolinguistic competence demands to know about the sphere of social classes, the life of student in spare time, study of simple way of communication, the culture of Uzbekistan and foreign country, the forms of intercultural means, national and human value (as language, religion, nation, traditions, custom, art, literature, national value, history, geographic and demographic position and etc), tolerance thought and others.

Pragmatic competence includes in itself the formation of question asking of the unknown, new, difficult to understand words and phrases in the spoken and written texts.

Adequate linguistic behavior in any professional form demands systematic-linguistic knowledge, laws and customs of certain country national mentality, because diversity of business cultures while interrelating leads to misbalancing of decision-making mechanism function, self-organization, conflicts solving. Foreign methodologists, who have been worked in the terms of different cultures interrelation, the idea of cultural component using is axiomatic. Also other famous methodologists such as Ter-Minasova, Elizarova, Safonova, Bagramova, Gluhov, Passov etc. suppose that culture phenomena must be included to the methodological activities system under foreign language learning of different specifics universities and institutions. Mentioned above linguists tell about valuable new approach to foreign linguistic communicative competence under conditions of linguistic as well as ESP classes.

One of the main problem for scientists from Uzbekistan is goal-setting, namely structure elaboration of aims and objectives, co-subordination of

managing-pedagogical objectives according to their functions and content.¹⁶ Speaking about aims of learning, the majority of methodologists till recent time used the “competency” term (linguistic or spoken). However the methodological literature distinguishes “competency” and “competence”, basing on definitions of Russian language dictionaries. Specification the definitions of notions it is efficient to distinguish “communicative competency” and “communicative competence”. Improving via appropriate knowledge, skills in the process of learning-professional activity, linguistic competency supports formation of learners communicative competence and provide its successful cultural-professional activity further. In point of view, linguistic competency must be considered as potential capacity, which is base of efficient decision and determines competence level. In other words, linguistic competence, achieving the high developing level, as result of mastering new knowledge, skills, leads to individual integrative capacity.

Foreign communicative competence formation is one of the main aspects of specialist professional training. Professional communicative competence may be determined as a skill of communicative tasks solving within certain discourse moreover a wide range of communicative situations. In the wide sense, within business-communication discourse, professional foreign communicative competence is a capacity to solve business-tasks for particular business-result achieving in the context of other business-realty and other culture.

Professional foreign communicative competence structure is quiet difficult and includes linguistic component (spoken communication means proficiency), informative component (professional competency), cultural component (having basic knowledge about partners in culture bound term relating other culture).

Learners adaptation process to extra linguistic activity features is considered by many methodologists as learners acculturation process. There are some crucial

¹⁶Hymes,D. On communicative competence. In: J. B. Pride and J. Holmes(eds.),Sociolinguistics, 269–285. Harmonds worth:Penguin.

aspects which are emphasized in the linguistic individual: verbal-semantic level (lexicon), linked with communicative language proficiency (its phonetic, pronouncing, lexical, grammatical level); cognitive level (thesaurus) linked with intellectual sphere and forming on the base of notions, ideas, “picture of World” values system; pragmatic level (pragmatic on), linked with motives, arrangements, individual intensions.

To form certain tasks, which solving is a main requirement of foreign intercultural communication learning, it is important to set which knowledge is necessary to give for efficient acculturation. In the intercultural communication communicative act participants jungle universal (encyclopedic) knowledge, ix. Common knowledge or regionalism-knowledge, i.e. knowledge of certain contingent, who bound with common history and location. Last one can be spoken about intercultural analogues. However, main acculturation issue is linked with knowledge, non-correspondent in communication caused by different cultures identity. In this case, regarding to basic knowledge, distinct to encyclopedic, primary that they are not systematic, but local associations. Plenty of researches distinguish basic knowledge to culture bound term (subjects and phenomena of national culture) and etiquette all together determine linguistic individual cultural literacy.

According to Elizarova notes, due to modern communicative methods contributed high level of linguistic proficiency (native speaker has literacy, sophistication, fluency), however there are some disadvantages of the system, where the arrangement of intercultural competence formation is not reckoned. Communicative competence, fluency and spoken accuracy caused by lack of viewing about cultural component meaning that leads to misunderstanding and non-fruitful co-working process.¹⁷ Thus, the major aim of communication, its

¹⁷Kline, S. L. and B. L. Clinton Developments in children’s persuasive message practices. *Communication Education* 47: 1990, 120–136.

efficiency is doubtful and has negative form especially regarding social and economy officials.

The problem of cultural knowledge learning because cultural component in usual communication has index character, i.e. there is no denotation, having certain culture bound item, but in most cases it is not clear, can be understood by intuition or imposed by available stereotypes of cognitive models.

Intercultural competence learning is compound cognitive process, based on methodical-philological model, considering analyses of cultural universities and oppositions, set of theoretical materials, expressing modern tendencies in language and language politics, implementation of learning-practical activities settings, based on learners expectations analyses and demands of consumers; selection of certain material regarding to its professional and communicative relevancy; main didactical methods determination, functional skills nomenclature.

Predominate method of intercultural communicative competency formation is cognitive approach, i.e. student must comprehend pseudo-real problematic situation, where analyses of spoken and non-spoken activities lead to the solving search.

Analyses of plenty professional texts and business-situations specify frequent grammatical problems of English, demands for working out in economical higher school. Moreover as the major method of Grammaticus formation taking into account intercultural communicative competency is supposed cognitive-active foregrounded on grammatical conceptual frames formation (mainly, time concept) and its mastering in the system of communicative exercises. In addition, it is necessary to collate grammatical phenomena within cultural paradigm.

Lexical and situate concepts formation the system of exercises must lead to adequate comprehension about picture of World fragment in Uzbek, Russian, English languages to avoid possible cultural non-adequate behavior in foreign culture. Intercultural communicative competency forming learning lexis must be based on conceptual analyses. Tasks of analyses to detect frame type,

corresponding English lexical unit, its components, comparing with appropriate Uzbek, Russian concepts, creating traditional exercises system, actualizing notions, specified structure, determining further reframing process.

Conceptual analyses is basic in intercultural communicative competency forming, because student demonstrate conscious attitude towards given material. This principle reduces maximally exercises as drills and other exercises where students should find any mistakes. In other words, student must construct frames of texts and discourses via analyses.

Studying business communication the whole system consists of frames forming, which is realized in certain communicative situations. The subject of communication is closely linked with spoken behavior of communicators and stipulates functional choice of linguistic means in the context of participants activities. So as the communication matter in the wide sense it can be considered subject- linguistic context of situation. The whole system of exercises contents informative, where motive and aim are relevant cultural information revealing, and operational, where motive and aim are spoken strategies forming, considering intercultural and professional components.

Written language learning in business communication subject to culture-logical component demands linguistic frames forming via conceptual analyses, including macro-structure of text, subject context constant, linguistic analyses on micro-text level, stressing constant slot elements. In the structure of exercises can be noted such exercises, which form strategic frames, where pragmatic frame dominates. Last, one is general intension, so formal expressions as well as certain pragmatic frames forming and communicative strategies mastering aspects need special attention in the learning process.

As the means of formed detection of initial competences there are some culture awareness tests, revealing knowledge, skills in the beginning and ending of course, also the questioners of students self-estimation, which detect cultural mis-takes, represent set of communicative strategies and tactics, and its dynamics.

Up to day, due to international business cooperation extension one of the main problem of higher school pedagogy is the problem of non-linguistic faculties students training formation to foreign business communication, which is essential point of professionalism in any activities, because a formation level influences to result of foreign business contacts.

Business communication is a difficult, multidimensional process of contacts arrangement and development between equal partners, caused by demands of cooperation. Readiness and capacity of business communication is integrative professional mean, so foreign relations become a parity cooperation and constructive problem solving.

Under Uzbekistan State education standard of higher professional education, any specialist must be able to “communicate with foreigners in written and oral forms”, i.e. must be prepared to foreign efficient communication. Adequate oral behavior of any professional aspect demands systematic-linguistic knowledge, laws, traditions and customs, national mentality knowing, thus business cultures disparities lead to misbalance of decision making, self-organization, conflicts solving.¹⁸ Unawareness of cross-cultural dissimilarities decries communication efficiency. At this stage, there is a demand to search efficient means of future specialist training activation for credible business foreign communication.

Considering aforesaid, we can reasonably form aims of methodologists, who arrange linguistic program of foreign language in ESP classes. Such aim is to form linguistic individual, who can easily correlate in the context of foreign culture. In the structure of foreign communicative competence, which linguistic individual must own, main aspect is international competence and adaptation of communicators to new foreign cultures culture bound items.

One of the basic methodology of intercultural communicative competency forming is cognitive approach, that means student exposure into pseudo-real

¹⁸Parks, M.R. Communicative competence and interpersonal control. In: M. L. Knapp and G. R. Miller (eds.), *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication*, 589–618. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

problematic situation, where student searches decision via analyses of spoken and non-spoken actions, also a capacity to graphically express and symbolically imagine frame of text or discourse (stereotype information, imagined in consciousness in the form of dynamic or static mental models).

2.2 Techniques developing intercultural discourse competences in English language lessons

The majority of scholars believe that culture is an inseparable part of foreign language education (Byram, 1989, 1997; Dunnett, Dubin, Lezberg, 1986; Kramersch, 1993, 1998; Brooks, 2001; Cullen, 2000; Robinson, 1985; Huhn, 1978). There is a tendency though to treat language independently of the culture (Byram, 1989). Teaching culture cannot be considered an extra skill, but has to be a part of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing. Dunnett, Dubin, Lezberg (1986) claim that most of teaching time is devoted to the development of four language skills and it is difficult to convince the language teachers that the teaching of culture is not a secondary goal. According to Politzer (in Brooks, 2001), teaching language without culture would be like teaching meaningless symbols to which students add the wrong meanings. Kramersch (1993) claims that speakers have expectations based on their own experiences and consequently interpret situations based on their own cultures, and this can often lead to misunderstanding. It is important though to teach target culture in contrast and comparison with one's own culture (Huhn, 1978). Robinson (1985) adds that cultures never remain static and that they are constantly changing, which makes it especially difficult for foreign language teachers to keep up with developments.

With the introduction of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages by the Council of Europe (CEFR, 2001) much greater importance was given to cultural aspects in foreign language education. The aim was to equip learners with the ability to communicate appropriately across linguistic and cultural boundaries in multicultural and multilingual Europe. Even though, the CEFR emphasizes the importance of developing ICC, it only gives general instruction. It does not specify all the aspects of cultural teaching and does not

provide specific guidance for teachers. National curricular documents are based on the CEFR, and usually provide even less guidance concerning the development of ICC (Reid, 2014; Europublic, 2006; Zerzov?, 2012; Kostkov?, 2012). Consequently, teachers can become confused and do not know which contents, approaches and techniques to use with the aim of developing intercultural communicative competences.

The main aim of this paper is to introduce the techniques for developing ICC, but also to briefly discuss the contents of cultural teaching. The following contents are excerpted from the CEFR and summarized based on the theory of culture and intercultural communication (Reid, 2014). Socio-cultural knowledge (everyday living, living conditions, interpersonal relations, history, values, beliefs, taboos, social conventions, ritual behavior), sociolinguistic competences (greetings, addressing, dialect, accent, register, positive and negative politeness, idioms, etc.), pragmatic competences (advising, persuading, urging, socializing, interaction patterns) and non-verbal communication (body language, gestures, eye contact, proxemics, etc.) are the most fundamental components necessary for development of ICC. It is important to include cultural activities right from the beginning of foreign language education for all age groups. The aim is to enrich the learners' awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills concerning not only the target culture, but also their own culture and other cultures.

Various techniques for teaching cultural aspects are introduced in this paper, but also examples of activities are provided, which can inspire teachers for their cultural teaching. Byram (1997) claims that acquiring ICC is a complex matter involving more than traditional language lessons. According to Brooks (2001), ICC are the best gained practically, just as if learners acquire phonological accuracy, syntax or morphology through actual practice. Regular conversational topics should be about daily tasks, which should highlight identity, similarity and differences in comparable patterns of culture. Research findings indicate, that teachers mainly teach socio-cultural aspects (factual information, holidays, traditions, food, housing, etc.) and pay little attention to sociolinguistic, pragmatic

competences and non-verbal communication (Reid, 2014; Zerzov?, 2012; Kostkov?, 2012). Often only pleasant aspects of the target culture are presented, which creates an unrealistic picture in learners' perception. Realistic, accurate, contemporary and factual information should be presented to the learners (Hahn, 1978).

This technique concentrates on discussing the differences between the native and target cultures (Hughes, 1986). Not only features of different cultures, but also those within a single culture should be compared, because cultures never remain static, they are constantly changing and different generations interpret things differently (Robinson, 1985). The following activity can be used for developing socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and non-verbal competences. A very popular example with primary and lower secondary school pupils is the topic of "school", including school routine, subjects, length of classes, clothes to wear, school buildings, homework, school meals, phrases, and ways of behavior. Pupils watch a simple short video, which shows a typical British school day. In addition, has subtitles for better understanding. The video presents a typical school day for an 11-year-old pupil. It offers socio-cultural knowledge, but also sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases (greetings, addressing people, polite requests, proper use of please and thank you, formal register) and also non-verbal communication (in Slovakia pupils should raise their hand if they wish to request the teacher's attention, in Britain pupils verbally address the teacher). Pupils can discuss and compare the typical Slovak and British school day, decide for pros and cons of each school system. It is also an important comparison between the phrases for requesting, offering, thanking, and addressing the teacher (in Slovakia Mrs. Teacher is used, while in Britain Mrs. Surname is used) and the differences of non-verbal communication.

With the technique of cultural assimilation, the learners are presented with a critical incident, which would probably be misunderstood. Learners are given several possibilities, from which they choose the one which they think is correct. Non-verbal greetings are probably the most common examples of

misunderstanding. Cheek kissing is a common greeting, which people think is universal. However, cheek kissing varies from one to four kisses, depending on culture. The following activity practices non-verbal communication. A teacher can demonstrate on somebody different types of cheek kiss greetings: one kiss, two kisses, three and four kisses. Learners should decide which type of kiss greeting is correct. Based on their own experience, they would choose the type of greeting typical for their own culture. Teacher should explain that all types of cheek kiss greetings are correct, but vary across different cultures. The teacher should acknowledge for the learners that there are differences even within one culture. Social kissing in the UK is rare and there is usually only one kiss. Slovakia, Croatia, Austria, Spain use two kisses, but it can vary from region to region and with the gender of the people who kiss. Three kisses are used in the Netherlands, Switzerland and Belgium. France can vary from region to region and correspondingly the numbers of kisses used between two to four.

The technique of cultural capsule demonstrates, for example a custom, which is different in two cultures. It can be accompanied by visual aids to show differences and a set of questions for class discussion (Hughes, 1986). The following activity practices socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. For example, the issue of the main meal of the day could be discussed. For example, the main meal of the day in Slovakia is a hot lunch consisting of soup followed by a main course, and in the UK, it is generally the evening meal with a main course and a pudding. Pictures of different typical meals can be presented. Learners should discuss the pros and cons of the eating habits of each culture. Sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases connected to eating habits should be also compared.

Cultural Island is a very simple but effective technique, as it is always subconsciously effecting the learners. Contemporary posters and pictures of actors, singers, films, writers, books, and famous places should be put on the walls in the classrooms. Their aim is to attract the learners' attention, evoke comments and maintain the cultural atmosphere (Hughes, 1986). Cultural Island focuses on socio-

cultural knowledge. In most language classrooms grammar charts, vocabulary posters and other language connected pictures are present, which are not really attractive to learners. They should be replaced by attractive, popular posters and pictures.

Reformulation is retelling a story to a partner in his/her own words. Noticing is paying attention to particular features (Cullen, 2000). Both techniques could be used with the previously mentioned video of the British school day. Pupils could retell parts of the story, through which they practice speaking and their socio-cultural knowledge. Noticing is a very effective technique, by which learners look for specific features connected to the topic (e.g. differences between British and Slovak schools, the number of times the word “please” is used, etc.). Reformulation and noticing can be used for practicing socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and non-verbal competences.

Prediction engages students actively by finishing (predicting) a half told story, guessing the contents of an article or a book based on the headlines, predicting the contents of a topic based on a few pieces of information. This should evoke the students’ curiosity and interest to talk, no matter if their predictions are correct or not (Cullen, 2000).¹⁹ For example a headline from a magazine “Brad Pitt, Angelina Jolie to adopt again” already suggests the two famous people and the generally known knowledge of their adopted children. Learners discuss and predict what the article might be about. The topic of adoption can be discussed in deeper ways and different cultural views can be compared. This activity is more suitable for advanced mature learners and it can practice socio-cultural knowledge, but also system of values.

TPR is very popular with small children, who love to act out songs, stories, and even grammar structures. TPR in cultural teaching is most suitable for non-verbal communication and can be used with different age groups. Learners need to acknowledge by practice, different gestures and their meanings in different cultures. Good examples, such as what was already mentioned, can be kissing on

¹⁹Passov E.I. Communicative method of foreign speaking training. - The 2nd edition. - M. Prosveschenie, 1991.

the cheek, a handshake, thumbs up, a thumb and forefinger sign, shaking of the head, etc. These actions often have different meanings in different cultures. A learner acts out various gestures and other learners assign it to the cultures where the gesture is appropriate or inappropriate.

Role-play is a very effective technique practicing sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases, socio-cultural knowledge, but also non-verbal communication. For example, learners can practice situations in a restaurant, shop, bus station, etc. The role-plays are the closest possible opportunities for learners to practice real life situations, which are necessary for intercultural communication. Role-plays are suitable for all levels of language proficiency and age groups.

Treasure hunt involves searching for certain items set in advance, for example people, dates, events in a news or magazine article. Research is a powerful learning tool, which combines learning and interests. Students are asked to research any aspects of the target culture, which interest them present their projects and also create and present posters. Drama is a technique where learners act out short scenes of misinterpretation and clarification of something that happens between two cultures, which is caused by misunderstanding the target culture. An effective technique for the development of the intercultural perspective is the use of personal diaries, journals and portfolio. Learners should make notes of their own understanding of intercultural elements; describe encounters with someone in the foreign language, experiences from visiting a foreign country, etc. They can retrospectively look at the development of their ICC. Also most of the standard ESP activities (games, field trips, songs, etc.) could be adapted for teaching culture.

CHAPTER III. The ways of improving students' discourse competence

3.1 Developing discourse Competence in the EFL Classroom

The development of the harmonious and competent personality is one of the most important tasks in the process of training future teachers.

This is the subject of many current researches, the analysis of which is represented in this article.

The goal of the given article is to explore the theoretical aspects of the formation of foreign language teacher's general competence in the context of the Common European Framework.

The Common European Framework provides a common basis of the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe.

The taxonomic nature of the Framework inevitably means trying to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components. This confronts us with psychological and pedagogical problems of some depth. Communication calls upon the whole human being. The competences interact in complex ways in development of each unique human personality that leads to the formation of foreign language teacher's general competence. In our exploration, we tried to take into consideration these theoretical aspects.

All human competences contribute in one way or another to the language user's ability to communicate and may be regarded as aspects of communicative competence. It may however be useful to distinguish those less closely related to language from linguistic competences more narrowly defined.

For the realization of communicative intensions, user's/learners bring to bear their general capacities as detailed above together with a more specifically language-related communicative competence. Communicative competence in this narrower sense has the following components: linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competences, pragmatic competences.

Linguistic competences is defined as knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated. Here we distinguish:

1. lexical competence;
2. grammatical competence;
3. semantic competence;
4. phonological competence;

5. orthographic competence;
6. orthopedic competence

Sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use.²⁰ The matters treated here are those specifically relating to language use and not dealt with elsewhere: linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions; expressions of folk-wisdom; register differences and dialect and accent.

Pragmatic competences are concerned with the user/learner's knowledge of the principles according to which messages are:

1. Organized, structured and arranged ("discourse competence");
2. Used to perform communicative functions ("functional competence")
3. Sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata ("design competence")

So, taken into consideration the results of our exploration we may conclude that the formation of foreign language teacher's general competence should be considered as a general criterion for their professional competence in the context of the Common European Framework.

Research into pragmatic competence has repeatedly proven that even proficient speakers of English often lack necessary pragmatic competence; that is, they are not aware of the social, cultural, and discourse conventions that have to be followed in various situations (Bardovi-Harlig 1999). Research has also been done on the disparity between grammatical and pragmatic competence. However, relatively less attention has been paid to how classroom-based instruction can contribute to the pragmatic development of foreign language learners. This article presents the activities of a four-week program aimed at developing students' pragmatic competence by focusing on two speech acts, openings and closings.

Communicative language pedagogy and research into communicative competence have shown that language learning exceeds the limits of memorizing

²⁰Popova A.Yu. Economical activities in the foreign context (experience of business-profession analyses) // Philology and methodology of foreign languages tutoring. - StP., 1998.

vocabulary items and grammar rules (Canale 1983). Pragmatic competence, although sometimes in disguise, has been a part of the models describing communicative competence. We have defined pragmatic competence as the knowledge of social, cultural, and discourse conventions that have to be followed in various situations.

Pragmatic competence is not a piece of knowledge additional to the learners' existing grammatical knowledge, but is an organic part of the learners' communicative competence (Kasper 1997). Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, and Reynolds (1996) highlight the importance of pragmatic competence and point out the consequences of lacking this competence:

Speakers who do not use pragmatically appropriate language run the risk of appearing uncooperative at the least, or, more seriously, rude or insulting. This is particularly true of advanced learners whose high linguistic proficiency leads other speakers to expect concomitantly high pragmatic competence (324).

Can pragmatic competence be taught? This question has inspired a number of research projects exploring the role of instruction in learners' pragmatic development. Kasper (1997) argues that while competence cannot be taught, students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence:

Competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose. The challenge for foreign or second language teaching is whether we can arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence in L2 (1).

A number of studies have explored how English language textbooks present speech acts (see Bardovi-Harlig et al (1996) on closings; Boxer and Pickering (1995) on compliments; and Edwards and on openings and closings). These studies are essential from an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) perspective because in EFL instruction natural input is much scarcer than it is in an English as a Second Language (ESL) setting. Therefore, the role of textbooks in raising students' pragmatic awareness is more important. However, all the above-mentioned articles

concluded that textbooks usually fail to provide the necessary and appropriate input in speech acts, and the material they do present often differs from real life speech.

It is difficult to give clear suggestions for improving pragmatic input in textbooks, particularly because textbooks are usually targeted to an international audience. Boxer and Pickering (1995) underline the importance of building teaching materials on spontaneous speech and not relying on native speaker intuition, which may be misleading at times. Enriching classroom input with real world

Materials, such as recordings of native speaker conversations, radio programs, and even television soap operas, can be beneficial. To provide sufficient pragmatic input for the students, it is also important to supplement textbooks with additional books that focus on pragmatics.

Because we chose openings and closings as the focus of our pragmatic program, we here survey the literature to provide some useful concepts and definitions. None of the studies mentioned in Kasper's (1997) comprehensive account deal with the explicit or implicit teaching of openings and closings. There are, however, studies on openings, mainly comparing native and non-native speakers. Omar (1992) examined these two groups based on how they open conversations in Kiswahili. Closings have been examined in naturally occurring conversations (Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig 1992). With respect to both openings and closings, the studies concluded that non-native speakers often had problems mastering these elaborate speech acts.

An examination of English openings and closings shows that they are elaborate. Openings usually start with an adjacency pair (Schegloff and Sacks 1973), such as Hello!–Hi! A post-opening, such as how are you, often follows this pairing? Post openings are the elements that come between the greeting and the main body of the conversation.

In their examination of closings, Bardovi-Harlig et al (1996) noted that English closings often end with an adjacency pair called terminal pair/exchange

(e.g., Bye–Good bye).²¹ The researchers point out, however, that before this terminal pair, speakers often attempt to shut down the topic, that is, complete the closing, by using pre-closing elements such as: Well, it was nice talking to you or I will talk to you later. Because not all languages have such elaborate openings and closings as English, learners often have difficulty acquiring the pragmatic rules and functions that differ from their native language.

As mentioned earlier, the textbook studies concluded that there is often insufficient input to enable EFL learners to develop necessary pragmatic competence. To address this problem, we designed a pragmatic program involving four activities to provide students with explicit teaching on two speech acts, openings and closings. Each activity lasts about 35 to 45 minutes and contains follow-up discussions during which students and teachers discuss the new structures and phrases as well as any problems that arose while completing the activities. Below we describe these activities for the benefit of EFL and ESL teachers who may wish to implement them in their classrooms.

Activity 1: How would it sound abroad?

This activity (based on Edwards 2003) includes a short conversation that students have to translate from their first language (Hungarian, in our case) to English. The conversation does not contain difficult grammar or vocabulary, but it is completely Hungarian in its nature; that is, it is made up of pragmatic elements that cannot be directly translated into English, such as the formal and informal forms and some greetings. The situation and the literally translated dialog is presented below:

An elderly woman and a man in his twenties meet in the street. They have known each other for some years, but very superficially. Translate the following simple dialog and think about how it would be different in England or the United States.

²¹Rubin, R. B., E. E. Graham, and J. T. Mignerey. A longitudinal study of college students' communication competence. *Communication Education* 39:1998., 1–14.

A: Good morning, Auntie Elizabeth!

B: Good morning, John!

A: How are you?

B: Well, I'm not too well. I've been struggling with backaches recently... and you know my salary is quite low. We can hardly make ends meet at the end of the month.

A: Oh, well... I think this is all the government's fault. The such and such party would do a much better job.

B: Hmm, maybe. Well, here is my bus. I have to go. Bye.

A: Hello.

Short and simple as this dialog may seem to be, it provides a very good opportunity for a thorough discussion about the pragmatic differences between the two languages. During discussion the following issues can be raised:

- In English, "How are you?" is usually considered a greeting, not a real question. However, in Hungarian, the phrase "Hogy vagy?" or "Hogy van?" (Depending upon whether the speaker uses the informal or formal form) may communicate genuine interest in the other speaker's well-being.²² As a result, the EFL student might be surprised or—worse yet—insulted if not given adequate time to describe, say, his or her stomach problems.

- English phrases, such as greetings, are used in other languages, but often take on a different meaning. In Hungarian, for instance, hello, in addition to being a greeting is a leave-taking. Therefore, while it is perfectly acceptable in Hungarian to convey goodbye by saying hello, a native English speaker-hearing hello is likely to be astonished by such a leave-taking.

- Adult English speakers do not ordinarily address someone as Auntie or Uncle unless there is a genuine familial relationship of that sort. In Hungarian, however, a similar form exists (noni for females and bocce for males), and children and young people may use it to address older adults outside of their family.

²²Safonona VV Foreign international communication learning within culture and civilization dialogue. - Voronezh: "Istoki", 1996.

Because English does not distinguish between formal and informal forms, politeness or informality has to be expressed by other means.

- In English one might attempt to end a conversation by using pre-closing elements (Activity 2); however, in other languages, speakers may end a conversation more abruptly.

When the activity described above was piloted with a group of teacher trainees, students pointed out that, although there were no grammatical problems with the translated dialog, it still “wasn’t English.” This observation points to the fact that language proficiency cannot be complete without knowledge of the appropriate pragmatic rules of the target language.

Activity 2: We can't say goodbye!

This activity consists of three parts. In the first part, the teacher facilitates a discussion in which students brainstorm some phrases for closing a conversation, such as:

- I have to go now.
- I had better let you go.
- It has been (very) nice talking to you.
- I (really) must go / must be going / must be off

Now. Take care.

The teacher writes the phrases on the board. In the next part, the students work in pairs on an elaborate and jumbled dialog ending (taken from Bardovi-Harlig et al. 1996). Their task is to put the lines of the dialog in order. Below we provide the jumbled items so that the readers can reassemble the dialog. (The dialog, with the lines in the correct order.)

B: Fine. I will talk to you then.

A: I would love to continue this conversation, but I really need to go now. I have to get back to the office.

A: Good-bye.

B: Well, let us get together soon.

A: Sorry I have to rush off like this.

B: Friday sounds good. Where shall we meet?

A: (looks at watch) you know, I really must be going now or I'll be very late.

Can you give me a call tomorrow and we will decide?

A: How about Friday?

B: That is OK. I understand.

B: So long.

After the second phase of the activity, the teacher brings up the following questions for discussion.

- Who's trying to end the conversation? Who wants to continue to chat?
- How does one speaker try to signal that he/she wants to end the conversation?
- How do the speakers confirm their arrangement?

The follow-up activity is to write a soap opera dialog in which two people in love cannot say goodbye to each other and are trying to maintain the conversation for as long as possible.

Activity 3: What are they saying?

This activity includes a warm-up exercise during which the teacher attaches pieces of paper to students' backs with a different "role" on each of them, such as Mr. Thomas, your new boss; your uncle; your favorite TV personality; Mrs. Lovas, your elementary school teacher. The students' task is to find out their roles by listening to other people greeting them.

In the second, and main, part of the activity, students write conversations that correspond to different pictures (taken from Jones 1981, 5–18). They have to decide whether the situation is a formal or an informal encounter and choose phrases accordingly.

In the third part of the activity, the discussion contains the following questions:

- What differences are there between the formal and informal greeting forms?
Informal: What's up? / What's new? / How's it going? / How're you doing?
Nothing new. / I'm doing well.

Formal: Hello Mr. (s) / sir...! Good morning /afternoon/ etc.

Let me introduce myself. / May I speak to you, please?

- At what point (during the warm-up activity) did you find out who you were?
- How can you express politeness in English despite the lack of formal and informal forms?

Activity 4: Complete the dialog

The goal of this activity is to complete a simple and somewhat artificial-sounding dialog and make it more life-like.²³ A very short conversation is given to the students, and they are asked to expand the dialog by adding extra phrases and elements as well as a beginning and end to the conversation. The original dialog is the following:

Pat: Where do you live, Kim?

Kim: I live next to the library on Main Street.

Pat: How long have you lived there?

Kim: For two years.

Pat: Where did you live before that?

Kim: I lived in an apartment close to the university.

The teacher uses the blackboard or the overhead projector to write down expressions and phrases that the students can use as ideas for expanding the dialog. Students are also encouraged to come up with their own ideas based on their background knowledge and the previous three activities of the pragmatic program. Following are examples:

Opening:

(greeting) Good morning / Hello / Hi, John!

(important after greeting/post-opening) How are you?–Fine, thanks. / I am doing well. / Getting on, thanks. / Nice day, isn't it? / Excuse me, can I ask...can you tell me...?

²³Spitzberg, B. H. and W. R. Cupach
Sage.

Interpersonal Communication Competence. Beverly Hills, CA:

The body of the dialog:

Do you come here often?

Oh, by the way, that reminds me...

Have you heard the latest about...?

The traffic in this city is simply incredible / Can you believe it?

Oh, really? It's unbelievable! / I can't believe my ears!

Closing:

I've got to go now / I've got to be going now. / Take care.

I'd better let you go / I'd better not take up any more of your time.

I hope you don't mind, but ...

We'll have to get together (again) some time.

So, I'll see you soon / next week.

Bye! / See you (later)! / Good-bye!

In the discussion, the teacher asks the following questions.

- How did Pat and Kim greet each other/close the conversation?
- What phrases did you use to make the original dialog more interesting or life-like?

The aim of these activities is to give students firsthand experience in issues of pragmatic competence and to deepen their understanding by letting them discover the rules themselves. Working with Hungarian EFL learners, we designed the pragmatic program for their needs. However, all the activities can be tailored to other first languages, and teachers can prepare the dialogs and the discussion questions accordingly. Another consideration is that these activities were designed for monolingual classes. With multilingual classes, students with the same first language can work together. At the next stage, an interesting discussion can occur among students of different first languages, comparing their observations.

To obtain information on the potential usefulness of these activities in the EFL classroom, we decided to carry out an experiment involving 92 high school students in Hungary. The purpose was to investigate whether a four-week program would have any effect on how students performed the speech acts of opening and

closing conversations. The program comprised the four activities described above, facilitated by the students' regular English teachers, who had been provided with information on the purpose of the study and a detailed description of the activities. We visited the classes during the program and observed how the activities were carried out.

As our goal was to ascertain how the explicit teaching of some aspects of pragmatic competence affected students' performance, students were divided into a treatment and a control group (66 and 26 students, respectively), and their performance was measured by a pre- and a post-test requiring the students to perform a dialog with their peers. The format of the pre- and post-tests was a role play in which the students, working in pairs, had to solve a problem or reach an agreement without seeing their peer's role card. The pre- and post-test role plays were tape-recorded and transcribed.²⁴ As part of our analysis, we measured the presence of openings and closings and their appropriateness (for example, choosing the formal or informal greeting forms required by the situation and using hello only as a greeting). We also analyzed the elaborateness of the two speech acts, as determined by the presence of greetings, post-openings, shutting down the topic, pre-closings, and terminal pair/exchange. Our results show that after completing the activities described above, students in the treatment group used more elaborate opening and closing elements, which indicates the effectiveness of the program.

3.2 Teaching discourse competence through the integrated approach

Discourse competence is the primary subject of this research. Its discussion then requires that a clear definition should be provided. As the stance on the conception of competence itself will be specified in section 4, it is of primal importance to stipulate what really is meant by discourse itself. The following discussion is also intended to set ground for the presentation and interpretation of

²⁴Ter-Minasova S.G. Language and intercultural communication. - M. Slo- vo, 2000.

discourse mechanisms and its structure in foreign language communication, which will be the subjects of a separate discussion in section 3.

The definitions of discourse are aplenty. It can be specified simplistically as “a linguistic unit that comprises more than one sentence” (Fromkin et al 2003: 581) or language production built of a minimum two stretches of speech (Kurcz 2005: 161). Correct as these definitions seem, they encompass only some discourse aspects investigated in this study. The textuality of language production, to which these definitions refer, is indeed a significant discourse domain. But to really comprehend the phenomenon of discourse construction, a further, perhaps more challenging, multi-dimensional linguistic inquiry must be undertaken, that beyond the sentence itself (McCarthy 2001: 96).

Discourse can be analyzed in at least three dimensions. In the first one it is often portrayed as social practice, “produced, circulated, distributed, consumed in society” (Blommaert 2005: 29). This conception of discourse, then, proposes its analysis on the level of sociolinguistic communication with its unique setting to affect specific implementations of discursive routines. The focal point in this approach is the intertextuality of language production, as realized in the relation of a given text to non-linguistic representations of the society’s schematic concepts in which discourse operates, or in the relation of “the outside of the text to the text itself” (Fairclough 2003 : 15), e.g. through linking it “to an ill-defined penumbra of other texts, what has been said or written or at least thought elsewhere” (Fairclough 2003: 15). In this dimension then, discourse as social practice is dependent upon, not determined by the democratic speaking or writing conventions of a given society.

The second dimension of discourse analysis is that of particular discourses as products of specific routines cultivated in a given community, whether professional or social. These discourses are realized through the use of concrete linguistic objects, specific texts or text-types (Blommaert 2005: 29), which represent the common ideological, professional or institutional interests of a given microworld of discourse makers as well as its participants. These discourses may include

political discourse (cf. Fairclough 2000), ideological discourse (cf. Van Dijk 1998), economic discourse (c.f. Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999), medial discourse, including the representation of women in the media (cf. Walsh 1998), as well as institutional discourse representing e.g. doctor-patient interaction (cf. Wodak 1997a). These domains of discourse construction, however, will not be the subjects of the discussion pursued further in this research.

The third dimension of discourse is the individualized rhetoric of the speaker. Individual discourse is realized in “the resources which people deploy in relating to one another – keeping separate from one another, cooperating, competing, dominating – and in seeking to change the ways in which they relate to one another” (Fairclough 2003: 88). In this dimension, discourse is then constructed on a more psycholinguistic level, with individual choices undertaken to establish or maintain social relations.²⁵ As claimed by Blommaert (2005: 29), these choices include semantic relations, as realized in e.g. wording or metaphor, grammar, materializing in e.g. transitivity, modality or cohesion, achieved with

e.g. conjunction or schemata, and text structure, that is e.g. episode marking or turn-taking systems.

As shown above, discourse construction, no matter which dimension is discussed, is about relations, those established between separate discourse makers or between discourse makers and their community. Discourse relations materialize also on the texturing level through the interactional coherence and cohesion of language production as well as through the coherence and cohesion within one’s speech, that is through the intra-actionably domain of discourse. This very multi-dimensionality of discourse, then, embraces the vast territory of linguistics as well as the pragma linguistics of communication, both the grammar of speech, and the meaningful relation of an utterance, including a situational context, mood or a cultural setting of interaction (Grzegorzczkova 2007: 42). The framework of communicative competence presented by Us?-Juan and Martinez- Flor (2006a)

²⁵Thomas A. Psychologie interkulturellen Lernens und Handelns / A. Thomas (Hg.) // Kulturvergleichende Psychologie. Eine Einfuehrung. Goettingen, etc., 1993.

includes five components which appear inside rectangular boxes of the same size, namely, discourse, linguistic pragmatic, intercultural competence and strategic. Following Celler-Murcia and Olsten's (2000) view of discourse competence, the framework has this component at its heart. Thus, it appears inside an oval with a broken line, which leaves room for the four skills within that same rectangular box since the fact of being able to interpret and produce a spoken or written piece of discourse is the means to achieve successful communication. In this way, discourse competence is located in a position where the rest of the components (i.e., linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic) serve to build this competence which, in turn, shapes each of the other competencies.²⁶ As regards the relationship among all five components, the authors argue, in line with Savignon (2001), that all components are interrelated in the sense that an increase in one component interacts with the other components to produce an overall increase in the whole construct of communicative competence. This is the reason why the framework of communicative competence proposed by Us?-Juan and Martinez-Flor's (2006a) is represented as a circle enclosing all five components (see Figure1).

Figure 1: Components of communicative competence 1

Discourse competence is defined as the selection and sequencing of utterances or sentences to achieve a cohesive and coherent spoken or written text given a particular purpose and situational context. Linguistic competence refers to all the elements of the linguistic system, such as aspects concerning phonology, grammar and vocabulary which are needed to interpret or produce a spoken or written text. Pragmatic competence concerns the knowledge of the function or illocutionary force implied in the utterance that is intended to be understood or produced, as well as the contextual factors that affect its appropriacy. Intercultural competence refers

3. ²⁶Tirassa,M. Communicative competence and the architecture of the mind/brain. *Brain and Language* 68: 419-441.

to the knowledge of how to interpret and produce a spoken or written piece of discourse within a particular sociocultural context. Therefore, it involves knowledge of cultural factors such as the rules of behavior that exist in the target language community as well as cross-cultural awareness, including differences and similarities in cross-cultural communication. Finally, strategic competence is conceptualized as knowledge of both learning and communication strategies.

This communicative competence model emphasizes the importance of the four language skills since they are viewed as the manifestations of interpreting and producing a spoken or written piece of discourse which, as previously mentioned, is the core competence of the model. Thus, on the basis of this framework and taking the intercultural component as the point of departure, in what follows, a variety of activities in the four language skills are presented for teaching learners intercultural communicative competence.

In trying to develop learners' overall communicative competence in the target language through the four language skills, we have decided to focus particularly on the intercultural competence as being the approach less taken in the language class. Maggio (2001) gives the following three main reasons for such neglect.²⁷ First, teachers usually have an overcrowded curriculum to cover and lack the time to spend on teaching culture, which requires a lot of work. Second, many teachers have a limited knowledge of the target culture and, therefore, are afraid to teach it. Finally, she argues that teachers are often confused about what cultural aspects to cover.

In an attempt to help language teachers tackle cultural aspects in the language classroom, the purpose of this project works that of proposing a cultural project for building learners' communicative competence in the target language. The project is organized around three main stages: explanation, collection and implementation, which are described in turn.

²⁷Tomasello, M. The key is social cognition. In: D. Gentner and S. Goldin-Meadow (eds.), *Language in Mind: Advances in the Study of Language and Thought*, 2003. 47–57. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

In the first stage, i.e. Explanation, the teacher explains to learners the concept of intercultural competence in order to make them aware of the importance of paying attention to the culture of the target language.²⁸ Once the concept has been introduced, learners are told they are to explore the culture of the target language and they are presented with a list of key areas that offer the possibility for developing intercultural competence, including Family, Education, Law and Order or Power and Politics among others. The choice of topics follows Duffy and Mayes' (2001) project on how best to explore another culture. To alert learners to the content of the topics, the five- word technique developed by Cain (1990) could be of help. In such a technique, learners are requested to note down the first five words they think of in relation to each topic presented by the teacher and then learners' individual lists are discussed at length. This work is a simple way to get learners to activate their cultural background knowledge on the topics to be covered.

In the second step, i.e. Collection, learners are given the task to gather material outside the classroom in relation with the cultural topics they have agreed to work with in the first stage. Learners are recommended to collect material from a variety of sources including photocopied information from different printed materials, photo- documentaries, pictures, video or DVD scenes, recorded material like interviews to native speakers, excerpts from the internet and the like. The good thing of this activity is that learners' cultural awareness is further increased through having to question themselves what is culturally representative of the given topic. Once learners have collected all the material, they are required to hand it into the teacher at appointed office hours in order to allow him device activities in the four language skills that are to be implemented in the next stage of the project.

In the third stage, i.e. Implementation, learners work with a variety of activities that require their use of the four skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading

²⁸Vereschagin E.M., Kostomarov VG. In the search of new ways of linguo- national studies: the concept of spoken-behavioral tactics. - M., 1999.

and writing) in order to develop their overall communicative competence, and promote their cross-cultural awareness and understanding.

Listening skill: Sample activities

Activities such as video-taped cultural dialogues, audio- or video-taped cultural misunderstandings and taped-recorded interviews with native speakers, among many others, could promote listening skills with a special emphasis on the intercultural competence.

-In video-taped cultural dialogues, the learners view a video sketch where two people of different cultures are discussing an area of a cultural topic that the project focuses on.²⁹ One of them is from the learners' own culture whereas the other is from the target culture. The teacher plans pre-, while- and post-listening questions to raise learners' cross-cultural awareness while practicing listening. For example, a pre- listening question could request learners to predict the opinion of the two persons with regard to the given topic. While-listening question could require them to confirm or reject their predictions made on the pre-listening phase. Finally, the post- listening question could ask them to critically discuss the opinion of the person from the target culture. Once discussion on content is over, learners could also be requested to identify differences (if any) among the two persons interacting in the scene with regards to pauses, changes of intonation, voice quality or periods of silence on the one hand, and with regard to non-verbal means of communication (i.e., body movement, facial expression, eye contact, etc.) on the other hand.

-Listening to audio- or video-taped intercultural misunderstanding (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2002) is another useful activity to further sharpen learners' awareness of cultural differences. Learners can be required to listen to a situation that reports a real-life intercultural misunderstanding that causes people to become confused or offended and can then be asked to get into pairs or groups in order to come up with an explanation of such misunderstanding, which will inevitably increase their intercultural awareness.

²⁹Wiseman, R. L. and J. Koester (eds.)

Intercultural communication competence. Newbury Park, CA: 1993

- Taped-recorded interviews with native speakers is another useful activity type particularly suitable for practicing the intercultural competence. Here learners get into groups and are assigned the responsibility of tape-recording an informal interview with a native speaker they know. Learners should choose a cultural topic the project is based on and prepare questions on that topic for the interview. In class, the interviews are played and learners compare the opinion of the interviewee on the particular topic with their own opinion (adapted from White, 2006). These spontaneous recorded conversations offer two benefits. First, they give learners the chance to be exposed to natural language by listening to the native speaker's responses, something which is difficult to find in scripted material. Second, they encourage learners to become aware of their common problems with grammar, pronunciation, intonation, vocabulary and the like by listening to themselves.

- Moreover, songs, jokes or anecdotes from typical films from the target culture could be an excellent source of listening material to transport learners to the target culture and prepare them to communicate naturally.

- Finally, all recorded material gathered by the learners in the second stage of the project (i.e., interviews, TV or radio news, films, documentaries, songs, jokes or anecdotes, among others) could be used as the starting point of a modest Listening Library of culture-specific material for the class. Material should be organized into different thematic packets and accompanied with worksheets of structured exercises prepared by the teacher in order to develop all components underlying listening.

Speaking skill: Sample activities

Activity formats such as face-to-face tandem learning, making up questions to a native speaker or role-playing, among others, may develop speaking skills with a particular emphasis on the intercultural component.

- Face-to-face tandem learning, that is, collaborative oral learning between speakers of different languages is a type of activity particularly suitable for fostering learners' intercultural communicative competence. This activity can

easily be developed in instructional settings with the Erasmus scheme, which involves student exchanges among European Union countries. Typically, teachers arrange opportunities for all learners to get engaged in face-to-face tandem, and once learners have got to know their partners and have arranged the time and place for the tandem sessions, they are asked to choose a particular cultural topic among those dealt with in the project and talk about it with their corresponding partners.³⁰ Learners are requested to tape-record all conversations (with the permission of the Erasmus student) and then prepare an oral report for the particular topic they have been talking about in the sessions. The aim of this oral report is to encourage a more in-depth reflection about the topic being discussed while speaking skills are being promoted. All recorded tandem conversations could be added to the Listening Library of the class and be used as the basis to prepare additional activities that make learners reflect on linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural-related issues (e.g., tone of voice, silence) and strategic features underlying these oral interactions (Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan, 2006).

- The activity of Making up questions to a native speaker could also be an interesting one. A native speaker in the target language (for example, a foreign exchange student) could visit the class and learners could be assigned the task of preparing questions in small groups in order to interview the visitor. Questions should include items about the topics the project is dealing with, such as education in his country, what he likes doing at the weekend, eating habits or politics. Once the interview is over, the teacher's crucial task is to lead follow-up discussion so that the responses provided by the native speaker can be interpreted or possibly re-interpreted by the learners (adapted from Omaggio, 2001).

- Another activity that may work well in the oral skills class is role-playing. In particular, this activity has been claimed to be suitable for practicing the cultural variations in speech acts such as apologizing, suggesting, complimenting, among others (Lanzaron, 2001). Olshtain and Cohen (1991) suggest a five-step process for

³⁰Tomasello, M. The key is social cognition. In: D. Gentner and S. Goldin-Meadow (eds.), *Language in Mind: Advances in the Study of Language and Thought*,

the teaching of speech acts. The first step involves what they call diagnostic assessment in which the teachers determine the learners' level of awareness of the speech act to be taught. In the second step, the teacher presents learners with examples of the speech act in use (i.e., model dialogues) and learners are to guess details with regard to participants, such as their social status or role-relationship, as well as to the particular speech act, that is, whether an apology could be considered an offense, for example. In the third step, learners are given a variety of typical situations in the target culture and they have to evaluate how contextual variables affect the choice of the linguistic form of the speech act. In the fourth step, learners perform a role-play as a final practice. Here, as highlighted by the authors, the important thing is to supply learners with a lot of details about the role-relationship between the interlocutors as well as about the situation. This practice is followed by feedback and further discussion, the final step of the approach, to further help learners be aware of similarities and differences between speech act behavior in their own culture and in the target culture.

- By and large, all aural, visual and reading materials gathered by the learners in the second step of the project, can be utilized in some productive activities as background for promoting speaking. For example, as suggested by Shumin (2002) nonverbal videos can be played in class to have learners act out or describe what they view. This activity is particularly suitable to make learners focus on body language and help them to gradually assimilate the nonverbal behavior in the target culture. Alike, pictures, short scenes from films or documentaries can be used to elicit learners' opinion on a given cultural topic.

Reading skill: Sample activities

A variety of activities may be used in the language class to develop reading skills with a focus on the intercultural component. This section mentions a few, including critical reading, cultural bump activities, activities that focus on written genres or cultural extensive reading, among others.

- Critical reading, that is, reading to make judgments about how a text is argued, is a beneficial reflective activity type for promoting learners' intercultural

competence while practicing the reading ability. In carrying out this activity, the general framework based on pre-, during-, and post-reading instruction could be of help. For example, as a pre-reading activity learners could be asked to determine the content of the reading by strategically previewing the passage and then judge whether the identified content is representative of their own culture or of the target culture. As while-reading activity, learners could be requested to focus not only on what the text says (typical of close reading exercises) but also, and most important, on how the text portrays the given topic (i.e., author's choices of language and structure). Finally, as post-reading activity, learners could be asked whether the content of the text would vary if it was written by another writer or read by another reader in a different cultural context (adapted from Us?-Juan and Mart?nez-Flor,2006b).

- Teachers can also make learners read situations in which there is a cultural bump, that is, a situation that cause people to become uncomfortable or strange given particular cultural beliefs and attitudes. Then, different written interpretations of the behavior of the people involved in the situation can follow the account in a multiple choice format to allow class discussion and subsequently, check whether learners have correctly interpreted what went wrong and why people acted as they did, which will definitively help learners become aware and understand behavior in a target culture (Williams2001).

- Learners could also be required to analyze two written texts which have a similar genre as for example, reading advice columns in daily newspapers but which are from different cultures in order to compare if concerns and debates vary between cultures (Williams2001).

- The sentences of a cultural anecdote could be scrambled by the teacher and then learners could be requested to put the anecdote in sequence. This activity type is a useful one in order to help learners discern organizational issues in a given text (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain,2000).

- All material gathered by the learners in the second stage of the project could serve as the basis to prepare additional activities that make learners develop in

activating all competencies of the communicative competence construct. Word association activities where learners associate words in a given text to a given cultural topic could be helpful to promote learners' linguistic competence. Analysis of the text devices that convey the intended meaning of a given cultural text could serve to promote learners' pragmatic competence. Furthermore, the practice of previewing or making guesses about the content of a given cultural text both before and while reading could work to develop learners' strategic competence.

- Finally, as happens with listening, all reading material gathered by the learners in the second stage of the project (newspapers, magazines, books, comics, anecdotes etc.) could be used as the starting point of a modest extensive Reading Library of target culture-specific topics. Extensive reading should be promoted both in and out of the classroom. In the classroom, learners could engage in 10 minutes of sustained silent reading to read individually what they select from the class library. Out of the classroom, learners should be encouraged to take reading material home and respond to it by i) answering questions prepared beforehand by the teacher, ii) writing summaries, iii) writing reactions reports, or iv) giving oral presentations (Day and Bamford, 1998:141).

Writing skill: Sample activities

Activities such as tandem e-mail learning, designing stories and story continuation, among others, may develop writing skills with a particular emphasis on the intercultural component.

- Tandem e-mail learning has been regarded as an effective activity to promote cross-cultural dialogue while it is also a means of engaging learners in extended writing in a motivating way (Dodd, 2001). The idea is that two native speakers of different languages help each other to learn each other's language through the use of e-mail, communicating 50% of the time in each other's language. Once all technical aspects have been solved, learners are first introduced themselves and they are then requested to engage in a written dialogue based on a given cultural topic of the project. For in-class work, learners are requested to

bring into the class the printed copy of all e-mail exchanges in order to prepare a brief report in which they synthesize how the topic discussed in the e-mail conversations is represented in the partners' culture. For such an activity, learners are encouraged to follow Kroll's (2006) suggested sequence of steps from the setting of an assignment to the point at which the learners submit the complete text including, preparation for the given task (here the re-reading of all e-mail exchanges), drafting and feedback, which may be repeated as many times as needed prior to submitting the final written work for evaluation. All these printed e-mail conversations could be added to the Reading Library of the class to be used as the basis for additional written assignments.

- Designing stories is another activity type that could be used to promote learners' cultural imagination through writing. Here the teacher collects some magazines and first selects a variety of pictures that depict people in strange situations in the target culture, and then divides the class into small groups making each group responsible for describing what is happening in a particular picture. Once the groups have had the chance to generate their own opinion about what is happening in the picture and the group leader has informed the rest of the class, learners have to retell the story either individually or in groups, making sure the written account is coherent and cohesive (adapted from Omaggio,2001).

- Likewise, learners' cultural imagination can be promoted through writing by selecting passages with cultural misunderstanding. Ideally, passages should be narrative texts with different paragraphs each leading toward the intercultural misunderstanding. Typically, the teacher covers all but the first paragraph in which the situation is presented and learners are then asked to read this first paragraph and continue the story in the way they think is most likely. In such a process, learners should be encouraged to plan, draft and revise as many times as needed before it is ready for submission (Us?-Juan et al.,2006).

- Similar to the speaking skill, all aural, visual and reading materials collected by the learners in the second step of the project could serve as the basis for engaging learners in the preparatory activities that precede the learners' drafting of

a written text, which is essential if learners are to master the skill of writing. At the end of the implementation stage, learners reflect on their experience and exchange opinions about the topics being dealt with in the project. This discussion encourages them to take an evaluative and critical position in relation to the cross-cultural awareness activities in which they have participated.

Conclusion

Having analysed the approaches of improving the students' communicative competence we can say that language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular has tremendously changed over the centuries. Language learning and teaching are dynamic, fluid, mutable processes, so there is nothing

fixed about them unlike the teaching of other subjects. Language teaching especially throughout the twentieth century underwent numerous changes and innovations. Approximately, every decade a new approach or methodology comes into practice. Many major theories, events, trends and technologies which shaped English language teaching during the past decades suggest methodologies are as much a product of their times as educational systems, and rooted in the ideas of their time. The eight (language) learning principles are outlined below along with a discussion of their teaching implications and how they are to be applied to teaching beyond the language classroom. They are as follows:

- Second language learning is a developmental process;
- Language learning is an active process;
- Language learning is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge;
- Language learning is not the learner's first experience (with language);
- Language learning is an emotional experience;
- Language learning is to a large extent incidental;
- Language learning is not systematic.

As for methods of teaching we have analysed the Communicative approach does a lot to expand on the goal of creating "communicative competence" compared to earlier methods that professed the same objective. Teaching students how to use the language is considered to be at least as important as learning the language itself.

The concept of communicative competence is of theoretical as well as methodological and also practical relevance. It has proven to be fruitful for theoretical developments, empirical research and a huge number of application areas. In fact, few concepts in language research have a comparable significance for applied research. Moreover, practical needs have always been a central motor of development for the concept.

To achieve communicative competence, a number of processes and factors

work together, whose importance may vary dependent on the particular communicative situation involved. While there are several theoretical approaches possible, we have focused on empirically founded steps towards an integrative theory of communicative competence from the perspective of the individual. Although there are a large number of specific theories accounting for different aspects of communicative competence, many of them complement each other and converge in fundamental issues – even those from rather different approaches, such as the cognitive, mental-states framework and the social, interactive framework.

Developing learners' communicative competence has long been among the major goals of L2 instructional programs. It is our position that crucial to that development is an understanding of discourse as the key competence with the rest of the competencies (i.e. linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic) shaping it. Accordingly, we have argued that the four language skills play a key role in fostering learners' communicative competence since they are the manifestations of interpreting and producing a spoken or written piece of discourse, as well as a way of manifesting the rest of the components of the communicative competence construct. In this paper, and taking the intercultural competence as the point of departure, we have presented a sampling of activities in the four language skills for helping learners to communicate fluently and appropriately in the target language and culture. Although the four language skills have been presented separately for clarity purposes, the design of most activities has considered all the skills conjointly, consistent with how people interact with each other in real life. As a final remark therefore, we hope that the activities proposed in this paper may help learners see language learning not merely as *language practice* but as a *communicative activity*.

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